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Greek Civilization in the Roman Empire

BY PROFESSOR W. L. WESTERMANN, UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN.

The Teaching of Roman History. III.

If a sociologist were asked to write upon European civilization as a factor in the United States of to-day, his task would be no more comprehensive and no more elusive than that of the writer upon Greek civilization as a factor in the Roman Empire. In one respect the task set before the modern sociologist would be the simpler of the two, for the original Indian civilization of this country has left little appreciable impress upon our life to-day. Whereas the Greek civilization, in its spread over the world comprised within the bounds of the Roman Empire, found towards the east and south, in Western Asia and in Egypt, a culture far more ancient than itself, which the Greeks themselves regarded with something like awe and reverence. In the West, also, Greek civilization met with native peoples who were well on the way toward developing a culture of their own when the Greeks first appeared there as traders and colonizers. The tribes of inner Italy were never conquered by the Greeks, nor did their national characteristics ever disappear under the gradual and insidious changes wrought by the acceptance of Hellenic civilization. In Gaul the historian must always keep in mind the Celtic basis of the popular life, in Spain the native Iberian combined with Celtic influences.

The student of American cultural history would, therefore, have to deal with transplanting of European civilization into a new world and the powerful changes which affected it when transplanted upon what was virtually virgin soil. The student of the spread and influence of Greek culture must deal everywhere with the native elements. His task is one of studying the hybridization, or cross-breeding of two cultural elements. The one plant in each instance of this great cross-breeding throughout the Roman empire was the Greek culture. The other plant differed in the different localities. Consequently the resultant hybrids also differed locally. An exact and scholarly study of this process would necessitate a careful distinction between the Greco-Syrian, Greco-Egyptian, and Greco-Italian civilizations. It would also take note of and attempt to trace the gradual loss of differentiation in these hybrid varieties and their tendency to develop into a uniform type. In an article of the scope of this one it will be impossible to maintain and trace these distinctions. Indeed, to accomplish this would be the life task of some historian of the gigantic reach and

the intuitive decision of an Eduard Meyer. Perhaps it will help us in establishing our point of view if we recall briefly and superficially the great movements by which Greek civilization became a constant factor in all the lands which look upon the blue Mediterranean.

THE HELLENIZING OF THE MEDITERRANEAN

The first great movement of Greek colonization, which was most active in the period from 850 to 600 B. C., carried the Greek colonies around the rim of the Black Sea and the Mediterranean, from Trapezus to Gibraltar. In two large sections of this extensive coast line the Greeks found no footing. These were the Syrian-Phoenician litoral, along the easternmost bay of the Mediterranean, and the coast of northern Africa from about modern Tripolis westward. By 500 B. C. there were two civilizations predominant in the ancient Mediterranean world, that of the Persian empire and that of the independent city-states of the Greek world. The first is commonly called the ancient Oriental civilization, which includes Carthage with its Phoenician gods and its eastern ideals. The other is usually termed the Hellenic civilization. When Xerxes moved his armaments against the motherland and Carthage sent her forces against the Greeks of Sicily, the struggle was one of immense importance for the world. At Salamis, Himera and Plataea, the question of the further independent development of Hellenic culture was decided. It was a struggle even more momentous in history than the present lamentable war of the great powers of Europe, which seems to resolve itself into an attempt on the part of the German-speaking peoples to win with the sword a wider recognition and a wider sphere of influence for German civilization among the dominant nations. The fifth century saw two great forces in the world, the ancient Oriental and the Hellenic. In the century and a half which followed, the process of the commingling of these two began. This idea will be found clearly stated in the first lecture in Mahaffy's "Progress of Hellenism in Alexander's Empire." The meeting place of the two was in Asia Minor. Xenophon is, according to Professor Mahaffy, typical as one of the precursors of the new hybrid culture.

The second great period of Greek expansion is suddenly ushered in by Alexander's invasion of Asia.

Under Alexander and his successors Greek civilization was spread from the eastern border of the Mediterranean to the Indus River. Greek city-states were founded at the nodes of the military and commercial highways. They were intended to be centers for the expansion of Greek sentiment and culture, as well as strategic centers for the maintenance of the Macedonian-Greek military and civil dominance. The next 150 years cover the period in which the process of hybridization was effected. The result is the Greco-Oriental culture commonly called Hellenistic. The strength of the Greek element in this hybrid was greatest in Egypt and Syria, the kingdoms of the Ptolemies and Selucids. In general the Greek element was less potent in this process of cross-breeding according as it was further removed from its native soil. But it is exactly in those parts of Alexander's conquests which later became integral parts of the Roman empire, namely, Asia Minor, Syria, Palestine and Egypt, that the Hellenic element had most strongly asserted itself. We must, therefore, clearly fix the idea that the Roman province of Asia, which came into Roman possession in the tribuneship of Tiberius Gracchus, and the provinces of Bithynia and Pontus, Cilicia and Syria, which were brought under Roman sway by the imperialist general, Pompey, were thoroughly Oriental-Greek, or Hellenistic, in their civilization. As this was equally true of the earlier acquisition of Macedonia and Greece, as well as the later addition of Egypt, we may draw a line from the head of the Adriatic Sea southward into the Soudan, and say that everything east of that line was "Hellenistic" in its culture when it came into the Roman empire. The official language and the language of commerce was Greek and remained so in these lands until the Arabian conquest. Most of the literature was written in Greek, and Greek was the speech of all the educated and higher classes. In Egypt and Syria and Asia Minor the people of the cities and towns were bi-lingual, speaking the native tongue of their locality in addition to Greek. This is curiously illustrated in the report of the missionary activity of the Apostle Paul in Lystra, a city in Lycaonia of southern Asia Minor (Acts XIV, 6-12). While Paul and Barnabas were preaching there before a crowd of people, presumably in the street, Paul effected a faith cure upon a man congenitally lame. "And when the people saw what Paul had done, they lifted up their voices, saying in the speech of Lycaonia, 'The gods are come down to us in the likeness of men.' And they called Barnabas, Jupiter; and Paul, Mercurius, because he was the chief speaker." Paul's exposition of his belief had, of course, been spoken in Greek, and the street crowd of Lystra could understand it. But in their excitement they used their native tongue. The gods whom they knew were Greek gods, Zeus and Hermes. These were the people of the cities. Out in the villages and out in the countryside, as one drew away from these nodes of Greek culture, the rustic population would be less and less Hellenized the further

one journeyed from the highways. There is no proof and little probability, for example, that Jesus of Nazareth spoke or read Greek.

Another famous incident frequently used to show the degree of adoption of the Greek elements by the Orientals is that recorded by Plutarch in his life of Crassus. It occurred at the time when the famous Roman exponent of Big Business in Politics was killed at Carrhae near the Euphrates River in 53 B. C. After the report of the death of Crassus arrived, Orodes, king of the Parthians, and Artavasdes, the Armenian king, were reconciled and "freely went to each other's entertainment, in which many of the Greek tragedies were represented. For Orodes was not unversed in the Grecian literature, and Artavasdes had written tragedies himself, as well as orations and histories, some of which are still extant. In one of these entertainments, while they were yet at table, the head of Crassus was brought to the door. Jason, a tragedian of the city of Tralles, was rehearsing the *Bacchae* of Euripides, and the tragical adventures of Pentheus and Agave. All the company were expressing their admiration of the pieces, when Sillaces, entering the apartment, prostrated himself before the king, and laid the head of Crassus at his feet. The Parthians welcomed it with acclamations of joy, and the attendants, by the king's order, placed Sillaces at the table. Hereupon Jason gave one of the actors the habit of Pentheus, in which he had appeared, and putting on that of Agave, with the frantic air and all the enthusiasm of a Bacchanal, sung that part where Agave presents the head of Pentheus upon her Thrysus, fancying it to be that of a young lion." An Armenian king who writes Greek tragedies, Parthian generals who carry with them their Oriental harems upon their campaigns, and this ghoulish Oriental travesty of the most inspired of the Euripidean tragedies—what a strange admixture of the Oriental and the Greek!

In the western world of the ancient Mediterranean, Greek culture had been established for about eight centuries when Augustus Caesar faced the immense problem of the reorganization of the Mediterranean lands under a unified and effective government. Active colonization of this region by the Greeks had ceased before 500 B. C., although there was continual westward emigration from the motherland for another century. The Greek culture of the west, as that in the eastern Mediterranean, is to be divided into the classic, or Hellenic, period and the period of the Hellenistic, or hybrid Oriental-Greek civilization, as we have already defined its post-Alexandrian phase at the eastern end of the Mediterranean. In the first period the western peoples, Etruscans, Italians and Sicilians, did not add anything of importance to the Greek culture which came in. They were purely recipients. The Greek cities were the contributing element. The Etruscans in northern Italy had adopted many phases of the Greek culture, and through them the Italian tribes, more particularly the Latins, had become acquainted with Greek civilization and were strongly influenced by it.

After 350 B. C. the Greek peoples in the western half of the Mediterranean world began to decline noticeably. This is true commercially, politically and intellectually. In the period after Alexander they were incapable of developing a distinct and separate western type of civilization, such as the European peoples who have settled in North America have in many respects developed along distinct and divergent lines from the present civilization of Europe. Therefore, the tone of the Greek civilization of lower Italy and of Sicily was that of the great urban centers of the east, such as Athens, Alexandria and Antioch. In other words, their civilization was of the Greco-Oriental type which we have called Hellenistic. It is this later hybrid Greek culture which appealed so powerfully to the Romans when they first appeared, in the third century B. C., as a forceful factor in the military camps and the political councils of the Mediterranean powers. Upon the polished Greek of the time of Polybius, the Romans must have made much the same impression as we present-day Americans do upon thoughtful European visitors. We may seem raw and somewhat blatant, yet our civilization represents to one of them at least, "the supreme break with the old tradition," and a fresh and valiant beginning in human life. We may, in the thorough knowledge of our own defects, be seriously doubtful that our present condition and our problematic future will warrant the assumption of such great possibilities. Yet the phrase is useful as depicting fairly accurately the attitude of the observant Greek historian, Polybius, in the middle of the second century B. C., toward the possibilities inherent in the unified state of Italy under the hegemony of Rome.

It was then, the Hellenistic type of Greek culture which won the admiration of the militant Roman state of the period of the Punic wars, the Macedonian wars, and the war with Antiochus III, of Syria. In the third century B. C., when Rome was engaged in her stubborn and endless struggle with Carthage for the sole supremacy of the west, Rome and Italy received their Hellenistic ideas second hand, via the Greek city-states of southern Italy and of Sicily. In the following century they came directly into contact with Hellenistic standards through their wars and diplomatic relations with the eastern states. The attitude of the Ptolemaic government in Egypt in 112 B. C. towards the Roman Senate, the war-lords of their world, is illustrated by the preparations for the reception of a Roman Senator who was visiting in Egypt, probably on some diplomatic mission. The information comes from a letter sent down from a higher official at Alexandria to lower officials who transmitted a copy of it to an official of the Arsinoite nome named Horus. The papyrus was published by Grenfell and Hunt as *Tebtunis Papyri*, Vol. I, No. 33. "Hermias to Horus, greeting. Appended is a copy of the letter to Asclepiades. Take care that its instructions are followed. Goodbye. The 5th year, Xandieus 17, Meeheir 17.

"To Asclepiades. Lucius Memmius, a Roman senator, who occupies a position of great dignity and honour, is making the voyage from Alexandria to the Arsinoite nome to see the sights. Let him be received with special magnificence and take care that at the proper spots the chambers be prepared and the landing-places to them be got ready, and that the gifts of hospitality below written be presented to him at the landing-place, and that the furniture of the chamber, the customary tit-bits for Petesuchus (a crocodile god) and the crocodiles, the necessaries for the view of the labyrinth, and the offerings and the sacrifices be provided; in general take the greatest pains in everything that the visitor may be satisfied, and display the utmost zeal. . . ." Roman politicians of this period—it is that of the Jugurthine war—were of the type we call "practical." One wonders what Lucius Memmius thought of the crocodile god and the sacred crocodiles.

THE UNITY OF ANCIENT HISTORY FROM ALEXANDER TO CONSTANTINE

The most prevalent error in the teaching of ancient history and one quite fatal to a correct understanding of its political and cultural sequence, is the failure to treat the development of the ancient world as a unit from Alexander to Constantine. Instead of dealing with Alexander's empire and then emphasizing so strongly as is usually done the Greek federations, we should accustom our pupils to look upon the Mediterranean world of this period as a whole. In Greek history after Alexander, the gradual unification of culture, rather than the political life of the separate states of the Hellenistic world, is the vital point. In so far as we must give a clear outline of the political development, the federations are by no means so important as the kingdoms of Egypt and Syria, either as political powers or as sources of Greek culture. The significance of Rome and its conquest of Italy, the meaning of the Punic wars in Mediterranean history, the reasons why Roman imperialism carried the legions eastward in the second century, must be sketched. The pupil should learn to see the thing through Greek eyes first. The early history of the Roman Republic should then be taught as a preparation for this same treatment in Roman history. The whole development should then be handled in Roman history, so that the pupil will see the same movements in the ancient world, but now from the Occidental standpoint. It is essential that he be impressed with the Hellenistic culture of this world; that he see how and why Rome inherited from the eastern Hellenistic states the world's task of defending and maintaining Greek civilization. The reasons for advocating that the Hellenistic culture and its spread be treated twice, once from the viewpoint of the Eastern or Greek half of the Mediterranean, and again from the Occidental, or Roman-Italian, point of view, lie in the very intricacy of the process and its vital importance for an adequate understanding of the height and decline of the culture of the Roman empire.

*ACCEPTANCE OF HELLENISTIC CULTURE IN THE
WESTERN WORLD

The essential unity of the culture of the ancient Mediterranean world from Alexander to Constantine is the one great outstanding element which one must fix. This culture is Hellenistic in the first half of these six centuries. Hellenistic-Roman in the second. From the days of Scipio Africanus onward, Romans of the senatorial diplomatic circles all learned Greek and succumbed to the charm of its literature and its unrivalled powers of expression in the fine arts. Cato, the Censor, does not seem to have been averse to the imitation and study of Greek literary models or the Greek spirit in its better forms. His vaunted opposition to the Greek influence was against those evidences of it which seemed to him to be destructive of the national Roman character. Plutarch tells us that he studied Greek when rather advanced in years, and that he developed his rhetorical style by the study of Thucydides, and more especially Demosthenes. His attitude is best expressed by his unwillingness, at the time of the war with Antiochus the Great, to speak before the Athenians in Greek because he desired to follow the custom of his own country and to insist upon its language. He laughed at the Philhellenism of the Roman historian, Postumius Albinus, who wrote a history in Greek, with the request that allowances be made for his attempt at writing in a foreign tongue. Among Cato's slaves was a Greek grammarian named Chilo, who taught the children of other Romans. Cato would not put his own sons under Chilo's instruction, not because of any feeling of anti-Hellenism, but because he did not wish them to be reprimanded and punished by a slave.

In the days of Cicero and Caesar, the higher branches of the teaching profession at Rome were largely in the hands of Greeks. Both Cicero and Caesar received their final preparation in composition and oratorical delivery under a noted Greek teacher, Apollonius, at Rhodes. Cicero also studied oratory under Antiochus of Ascalon, at Athens. At Rhodes he studied philosophy with the great Stoic, Posidonius, with whom he established an intimate friendship which is attested in the following quotation from a letter to Atticus (ad Atticum II, 1; Shuckburgh's translation, Vol. I, p. 61):

"On the first of June, as I was on my way to Antium . . . your boy met me, and delivered to me a letter from you and a history of my consulship written in Greek. This made me glad that I had some time before delivered to L. Cassinius a book, also written in Greek, on the same subject, to take to you. For if I had read yours first, you might have said that I had pilfered from you. Although your essay (which I have read with pleasure) seemed to me just a trifle rough and bald, yet its very neglect of ornament is an ornament in itself, as women were once thought to have the best perfume who used none. My book, on the other hand, has exhausted the whole of Isocrates' unguent case, and all the paint boxes of

his pupils, and even Aristotle's colours. . . . Posidonius, in his letter of acknowledgment from Rhodes, says that as he read my memoir, which I had sent him with a view to his writing on the same subject with more elaboration, he was not only not incited to write, but absolutely made afraid to do so. In a word, I have routed the Greeks."

Quite modestly Ciceronian! Atticus and Cicero each composed a monograph *in Greek* on Cicero's consulship. Cicero acknowledged his indebtedness for rhetorical ornament to the models supplied by Isocrates and Aristotle. These monographs were assuredly Greco-Roman. The form and language were Greek. But Rome supplied the action which made contemporaneous history. In the same letter Cicero requested Atticus to publish the book—for Atticus was a publisher—and "see to there being copies at Athens and other Greek towns; for it may possibly throw some lustre on my actions." From the essay upon "The Career of a Roman Student" in F. F. Abbott's "Society and Politics in Ancient Rome," one may get a delightful picture of the education of Cicero's son, Marcus. His studies were concluded at Athens in 45 and 44 B. C., where Horace also was studying.

These examples will suffice to leave the impression that the intellectual life of the east was Hellenistic, and that of Italy was Hellenistic-Roman when the empire was founded. Much less clear to us is the extent to which Hellenistic culture had impressed itself upon the Celts of lower Gaul. Yet it is significant that, in keeping their army lists, the Helvetians used the Greek letters. These lists Caesar found in the Helvetian camp after his victory over them in 58 B. C. (Bell. Gall., I, 29). Caesar also records that the Druids used the Greek letters in their public and private affairs (B. G., VI, 14). It is apparent, however, from another statement of Caesar (B. G., V, 48) that a reading knowledge of Greek was not common among the central tribes of Gaul.

LATIN LITERATURE A CONTINUATION OF THE
HELLENISTIC

For the eastern half of the Roman empire the Hellenistic form of Greek culture, as defined earlier in this paper, remained the one dominant factor in all branches of intellectual and artistic life throughout the first three centuries of the Christian era. But one must also note that the great era of Greek productive genius closed about the time of the death of Cicero's friend, Posidonius the Stoic. It is true that Greco-Oriental artists of some repute still appear under the empire. But the figure of Posidonius stands out as the last of the Greek scientists and philosophers whom we may term really great. Our attention must, therefore, be directed toward the western half of the Mediterranean, and our task is to attempt to determine how deeply Hellenistic culture had penetrated beneath the surface of western nationality. Did the western Roman world slavishly imitate Hellenistic and early Greek models? Or did it

have the power to make use of the Greek sense of form and initiate advance upon new and distinctly western lines? No one conversant with Latin literature will deny that its source of inspiration is classic Greek and Hellenistic, and that its literary form was attained by close study of the great Greek classic writers. We know that Vergil's *Aeneid* is closely modelled upon the Homeric epics; that the Aeneas-Dido episode is taken from a Hellenistic epic, the *Argonautica* of Apollonius of Rhodes. Cicero, in the introduction to his charming essay, "On Old Age," indicates his indebtedness for the idea and general form to the "Tithonus" of Aristo of Ceos, a Peripatetic writer of the third century B. C. "I have attributed the entire conversation not to Tithonus, as Aristo of Ceos did—for there would be too little feeling of reality in a myth—but to Marcus Cato the Elder." The essay of Cicero "On Friendship" is a free imitation of the same subject as handled by Theophrastus, the pupil of Aristotle (Aulus Gellius, *Noctes Atticae*, I, 3, 10). Cicero's work, "De Officiis," is little more than a Latin adaptation of a Greek work by Panaetius of Rhodes on the political duties. His philosophical writings are, in like manner, eclectic adaptations of the philosophic works of his friend Posidonius and other Greek writers. There is no doubt that a good part of Caesar's general statements about the Gauls, in his account of the Gallie Wars, is taken from Posidonius' "Life of the Celts." Tacitus, too, in his "Germania," is largely indebted to Posidonius. The complete loss of the works of Posidonius, with his talent for fixing the psychology of peoples, has, indeed, been a great one! Lucretius, in his great poem, "De Rerum Natura," gives us the Greek atomistic Epicurean philosophy. Catullus' poem, called the "Lock of Berenice" (*Coma Berenices*), is a translation of an original Greek poem by the Alexandrian Callimachus. His versification, too, is closely adapted after Hellenistic models. The famous "Ille mi par esse deo videtur" is a translation of an ode by the Lesbian poetess, Sappho, which is extant. The meter is the same—hendecasyllables. Catullus has omitted one stanza of Sappho's ode and added another of his own making.

In the same way the indebtedness of genial Horace to the classic lyricists, Sappho and Alcaeus, and the passionate verse of Archilochus is great. Yet, despite all this, Roman literature from Cicero onward to the principate of Hadrian, may justly lay claim to originality in the sense that it has a distinctly Hellenistic-Roman and western individuality. The *Aeneid* is, in this sense, an original poem. It breathes the breath of the imperial city as it was under Augustus. And it is the highest expression of that spirit. The Aeneas who started from Troy as a Greekling, somewhat prone to tears, is steeled in the fires of hardship and disappointment into a purposeful and self-controlled Roman. Cicero, too, is no slavish imitator. His philosophic adaptations were needed in the Rome of his lifetime. He is, on this side of his work, like the American Professor of

Philosophy who translates and explains Bergson to us. We think none the less of him for trying to understand Bergson, and believe sincerely in his conviction that he does understand it. We are also humbly grateful to him for assuming that we will eventually get a grasp of it. In his political and forensic speeches Cicero's form is Roman, though based on the Greek and Hellenistic models. The occasions and incentives of his orations are quite as much western and Roman as those of Demosthenes' orations are fourth-century Athenian. Catullus is Hellenistic-Roman, Hellenistic in form, Roman in spirit. If we marshall the names of the other Latin authors of the Augustan Age and the early Empire—Horace, Ovid, Livy, Tacitus, Petronius, Propertius, Martial—we will get the correct point of view. *The Hellenistic-Roman literature of the empire is not one of imitation, but of continuation.* When the Greek genius gave out with Posidonius, the Roman literature continued its traditions upon its own lines for a century and a half. It is a mistake to press too far upon the Roman lack of literary originality. There has never been but one people who have really originated literary forms. That was the Greek people. Lyric form, tragedy, comedy, epic form, historiography, the dialogue, and its child, the essay, biography—all these go back to the Greeks. They left little for the Romans to originate, and almost nothing for us moderns, except the movie-play.

ART AND ARCHITECTURE OF THE EMPIRE IS HELLENISTIC

In its architecture and art the Roman empire is even more completely Hellenistic than in its literature. In this branch of expression the Greek genius in the east dominated over the Oriental, as may be seen in the Ptolemaic temples in Egypt, the little temple of Edfu and the Hellenistic-Egyptian temple at Dendereh. The Oriental elements, however, are prominent enough to compel us to deal with local variations of the Hellenistic types, Hellenistic-Syrian and Hellenistic-Egyptian. In the western half of the Empire the western spirit found much less to add to what the Greek genius for perfection of form had already attained. Pompeii, when it was destroyed in 79 A. D., was a thoroughly Hellenistic town in its outward appearance. The houses and public buildings were like those of Antioch and Alexandria, the frescoes on the walls of the villas were styles from the same cities. Erotic motives predominated. The charming borders of winged Cupids; the mythological scenes chiefly taken from the dramas of Euripides; the sentimental, over-sweet expression of the figures, with their small, rounded mouths and large, pathetic eyes—all of these were Hellenistic, and un-western. They were the conventional styles of the eastern Hellenistic cities. Professor von Duhn, of Heidelberg, has a little book, not translated into English, upon Pompeii, "A Hellenistic City in Italy," which gives this correct impression for Pompeian art and life. The architecture of the forum of Trajan is so thoroughly Hellenistic that we need not

dwell long upon it. It is true that the western part of the Roman empire developed its own super-ornate type of Corinthian capital, and otherwise modified Greek architectural ideas to some extent. But, after all, the Roman Corinthian capital is Hellenistic-Corinthian. Roman architecture is Greco-Roman. It is an interesting study to look at the "perfectly lovely" expressions upon the faces in the Pompeian frescoes and compare them with the bronze bust of a real Pompeian, such as the banker, Lucius Caecilius Jucundus, with his shrewd little eyes, his generous nose, his big mouth, and his wart. Then one gets clearly the idea of the un-western character of these artificial Hellenistic figures. Or read the introduction to Book VII of Vitruvius' book on architecture, where Vitruvius cites his Greek sources, and see how completely the literature on ancient architecture was Hellenistic. In America to-day we have an absolutely distinctive American type of architecture in our "sky-scrappers," "Himmel-kratzer," as the Germans translate it. Good or bad as they may be esthetically, they are our own; and foreign lecturers upon architecture deal with them as uniquely American, both in their architectural and engineering aspects. Our colonial style of house architecture is also American. No such evidences of individuality distinguished the Roman architecture from its Hellenistic models. An excellent discussion of this phase of western Hellenistic expression is to be found in Sandy's "Companion to Latin Studies," Ch. VII.

In the field of sculpture, there has been much discussion in the past twenty years of the question of the independence and individuality of Roman art, or its dependence upon eastern art. Franz Wickhoff, a professor of archaeology at Vienna, in his book entitled "Roman Art," has maintained that the independence of Roman sculpture had been greatly underestimated and that an artistic movement originated at Rome in the first and second centuries of the empire, and spread into the provinces in the third and fourth centuries. He asserted that the study of early Christian art proved that Roman art was a positive force which influenced the eastern Mediterranean from the time of Constantine downward. In opposition to this, a book appeared in 1901 from the pen of a brilliant Polish archaeologist, Josef Stryzgowski, entitled, "Orient oder Rom." Stryzgowski attempted to prove that it was impossible to speak of a distinctly "Roman" art, and that, throughout the period of the Roman empire, the Orient, thereby meaning the lands at the eastern end of the Mediterranean, was the creative center of art, Rome and the west the imitators. An analysis of this scientific dispute may be found in the introduction to Mrs. Eugenie Strong's excellent book on "Roman Sculpture." In the main Stryzgowski seems to be in the right in his assertion that Roman art was Hellenistic in its inspiration, and that the phrase, "art of the Roman empire," can only refer to that form of artistic expression which had its centers in the Hellenistic urban centers of the eastern Mediterranean, and was followed at Rome as well. But the East seems to

have been the creative center. Stryzgowski's belief that early Christian art is to be explained as a rerudescence of pre-Grecian or ancient Egyptian and ancient Syrian artistic ideals, has not met with general acceptance. The primitive features of early Christian art are rather due to a debasement of the Hellenistic standards which prevailed throughout the Roman empire.

OTHER HELLENISTIC FACTORS

Since this discussion upon Roman sculpture began, a number of significant facts have been brought out by recent excavations and discoveries of papyri and inscriptions in the countries at the eastern end of the Mediterranean. These facts, which throw light upon many political, social and economic phases of the history of the Roman empire, tend to strengthen Stryzgowski's contention as to sculpture. For they show that, in general, the Hellenistic east was the giving factor—that Hellenistic civilization is the general background for the life of the Roman empire. It may be said, speaking broadly, that the movement of civilization during the period of the Roman empire was always out of the East westward. Among the recent contributions of this character is the study of Professor W. S. Ferguson, of Harvard University, entitled, "Legalized Absolutism en route from Greece to Rome" ("American Historical Review," XVIII, pp. 29-47). It was long known that the deification of the Roman emperor was merely a continuance and imitation of the ruler-worship already existing in the Hellenistic kingdoms and city-states. Professor Ferguson has shown that it began with the deification of the city Rome and its rulers, which was practically forced upon the Roman imperialist generals of the first century B. C. by the Greek cities; that the Roman Republic readily accepted the idea because it was, in the Hellenistic East, an expression of political subservience and freed Rome from the necessity of making permanent treaties with the Greek states; and that emperor-worship was a development out of these beginnings.

Out of the new material of the past two decades has come the certainty that the Roman colonate was preceded by a similar system in the Hellenistic kingdoms. The economic aspects of mediaeval serfdom go back through the Roman empire to Hellenistic conditions and ideas of land tenure. Some knowledge of this may be gleaned from Ferguson's "Greek Imperialism" and Frank's recent book on "Roman Imperialism." The basic work upon it is Rostowzew's detailed treatment in his "Studien zur Geschichte des römischen Kolonats."

The scientific knowledge of the Roman empire was entirely Hellenistic, and the scientists themselves all Greeks or Oriental-Greeks. The *Natural History* of Pliny the Elder proves this to one's entire satisfaction. Ancient medical science was Greek entirely. All the great physicians at Rome were Greeks, including Asclepiades, the popular physician of Cicero's time, and the Syrian Galen who was court physician of the emperor Hadrian. It would be possible to

develop this idea along a dozen detailed lines. But the conclusion is already clear. The history of the Roman empire is the continuation of the history of the Hellenistic kingdoms. Its civilization is Hellenistic-Syrian, Hellenistic-Italian, or Hellenistic-Egyptian, as the case may be. This civilization is best summed up in the phrase, "Greco-Roman culture." Greek civilization was everywhere in evidence in the Roman empire. It is the great factor in that empire. It furnishes the framework and the scenery in which the political action of the Roman empire takes place. It is as all-pervasive a factor in the life of the Roman empire as European civilization is in our own.

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Teaching of History in Secondary Schools

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The point of view taken in this paper is not that of the historian, nor that of the history teacher in a secondary school. It is the point of view of one who, as an administrator in education, has been for many years observing the conditions under which high and other secondary schools in America are developing, and the new needs, social and pedagogical, that are being imposed upon them. Every student of secondary education must be aware that in recent years important developments have taken place, which have a direct bearing upon the purposes and methods of the work of every secondary school teacher.

The first of these is the enormous growth of the public high school during the last quarter of a century. There are now considerably upwards of 1,000,000 pupils in these high schools, of whom at least one-third will complete a four-years' course. These pupils present, in reality, a great variety of educational needs. They come from all classes of society. Some are destined to go early to work, having obtained a comparatively slight education at best. Others will have placed before them all kinds of educational opportunities. No longer do secondary school pupils come from a limited area of society, or represent a few well-defined needs with reference to their future vocational education. The public high school of to-day may be regarded in many ways as the most important single agency we have for the training of citizens. Fully 70 per cent. of the boys and girls entering the high school will either not complete a four-years' course or, having done so, will obtain no further schooling. By virtue of their native ability and place in society, a large proportion of these are destined to be influential, in greater

or less degree, as leaders. Whatever is done in the later stages of their growth towards education for citizenship must be done in the high school period.

In the second place, we must recognize that during the last few years all of the traditional subjects of secondary education have been subject to more or less scrutiny, especially from the standpoint of their educational values. It is the spirit of the social economy of our time that, as far as possible, all forms of social activity should be purposeful and efficient. It was inevitable that we should become more and more critical of any form of education based largely upon tradition. Most of the subjects of the secondary school curriculum have never been consciously evaluated in terms of the actual needs of the society of the twentieth century. We teach most of these subjects because they have long been taught in the schools, or because some particular group of people has fancied that their introduction into the curriculum would be worth while. In proportion as more subjects have become available for the high school than could be taken by any one pupil, choice and selection have become necessary. It has been inevitable, therefore, that the question of educational values should be the broad ideal before educators. Hitherto, we have faced this question, to some extent, by argument based more or less upon certain educational dogmas. We have had few, if any, genuine clues wherewith to approach a study of these values. The comparative merits of the various high school subjects, and of others not yet organized, have been for many years the subject of active dispute; but it must be confessed that as yet little progress has been made in ascertaining the actual purposes

which our teaching realizes under modern social conditions.

The fact is that, as contrasted with the scientific point of view, our attitude towards secondary school subjects to-day is mainly one of faith and belief. We have faith that certain forms of education are valuable, even though we know that as yet no demonstration of this value is possible. I would not, myself, for one moment disparage either the intensity or the direction of these educational faiths of ours. Until we shall have the means of working out an educational science, our faiths are the best conservative forces which we possess. The only contention that I hope to have stand out in this paper is that, with reference to some of the work and subjects of study of the high school, it is becoming increasingly possible for us to revise and improve our faiths, even to the extent of introducing into that work something of scientific method. I believe that it is even now possible for us to analyze the social necessities of our time in such a way as to obtain fairly definite goals, which can be made the objectives of education in such a subject, for example, as history. It is the purpose of this paper to make certain suggestions looking in that direction. In order to do this, however, it will be necessary for me to indicate somewhat more clearly why, from my point of view, the aims which now control in the teaching of history (as well as other subjects in the high school) are insufficient for modern requirements.

If you will frankly face the question, "Why should history be taught in a high school?" you will receive answers that may readily be placed in two categories. These answers express the aims which are supposed to control in the teaching of this subject. The first set of answers will be to the effect that the object in teaching history is that the pupil shall know the history of his country, or the history of periods antecedent to our own history, or the history of peoples who have played an important part in civilization. More specifically, perhaps, it will be said that the pupil must study history in order to pass required examinations in that subject, in order to meet the requirements of the college. All of these, obviously, are immediate or proximate aims. They do not, in any sense, express ultimate values, and they completely lack in finality. The real question still persists—"Why is it important that the student should know the history of his own country, or the history of periods antecedent to our own?"

In pushing back our inquiries in this matter, we shall find educators and historians presenting to us for consideration a second series of values which are relatively ultimate, but which, as I shall presently show, are characterized by extreme vagueness, and in some cases are of doubtful validity. It will be asserted that the study of history lays the foundations for good citizenship, that it trains the pupil to think, to reason and to judge, that it makes for good character, that it promotes social efficiency, and that it gives culture. All of these, it will readily be recognized, are commendable objects in themselves.

The difficulty with them as constituting aims for teaching history is that they cannot be made sufficiently concrete, definite or specific to guide us in selecting either the materials of history that shall be taught, or the most effective methods of teaching it. It is not clear, indeed, that some of them can be realized at all through the study of history to any appreciable extent, no matter what materials and methods are employed. For example, it has never yet been shown what, for the average man, the study of history contributes in the way of preparation for better citizenship. We all have a vague faith that such contribution should be possible, but it is yet far from clear in what way it can be made. Furthermore, the contention that history trains mental powers rests, of course, upon the same grounds as the claim that the study of geometry trains the power of reasoning, and the study of Latin, the power of observation.

We have abundant evidence now, based upon psychological experimentation as well as a more adequate analysis of general experience, that in the sense in which such statements are commonly taken, there is little truth in them. Unquestionably, the study of history can be made to train one form of memory, a few forms of reasoning, inference making, etc. The implication that such specific training results in a general enhancement of power throughout all forms of memory or reasoning is, of course, in the light of modern knowledge, an educational fallacy. Any form of study may be made to train a particular form of memory. Any form of study, indeed, may also be made to train particular abilities to reason, to observe, etc. Such training, however, must now be regarded as specific, and it is the part of educational wisdom, I believe, to base our judgments of educational values on other grounds than mental training, being sure that, if subjects were properly taught for their real values, mental training of numerous specific forms will be an inevitable and important by-product. I believe it is now demonstrable that mental power, as such, in any general sense, cannot be trained by direct approach thereto, any more than one can make honesty, or pleasure, or virtue an end, in itself, of action.

We are, therefore, driven to recognize that none of the aims, whether immediate or ultimate, which are now said to control in history teaching, are valid or useful in the sense that they enable us to choose what history we shall teach, and what methods we shall employ in teaching it. The time has arrived, I am convinced, when all persons interested, on the one hand, in the better teaching of history, and on the other hand, in better preparation for citizenship and the promotion of a common culture, shall face, in the light of modern knowledge, the question of valid aims and methods in the teaching of this important subject. This means that we shall have to go to the world of practical affairs, and obtain therefrom guidance as to the actual ends which can be made the objectives of educational effort, and which are worth while in modern society. Upon these we

shall base procedures in education systematically designed to realize these ends. We shall choose our material and our methods accordingly. We shall, if necessary, entirely forego any particular organization of the material of our subject which seems to be inherent in it (the so-called "logical organization of mathematics, the sciences," etc.), or an organization which has become recognized as a convenient one for handling material (for example, chronological order in history, in the teaching of literature, etc.).

In this connection, it is proper to recognize the large debt which in America we owe to the men in our universities, and elsewhere, who during recent years have done so much to develop what we may here call the science of history, or, perhaps, more broadly, the scientific treatment of the materials of history. These have contributed to research and constructive work in the field of history in accordance with scientific standards to an extent as yet only partly appreciated. Our secondary schools have felt the influence of this work, both through the training which history teachers have received under these men in our colleges and universities, and also in the more accurate and dispassionate writings which have been placed at their disposal. These leaders have always taken an important part in all discussion relating to improved methods of teaching history. I regret, however, to have to believe that in some ways their well-meant contributions have not aided in realizing the true aims of history, or other related teaching, in our secondary schools. The trouble has been that the knowledge of history has been made, under this influence, an end in itself, and far too little attention has been paid to the "functioning" value of that knowledge—that is, as to the part which it might be expected to play in the making of a cultivated and civic man or woman out of a high school pupil. There is a sense, indeed, in which the more scientific our history, as such, becomes, the less is it available for purposes of high school education. I mean that, in proportion as our analysis of the history of any given period becomes exhaustive and finally most highly generalized (as is always the tendency), the smaller may be its value in giving the appreciations, insight and the ideals which are essential to the citizen, as such.

Because of this tendency of the scientific historian to look upon his work as an end in itself, and to disregard its instrumental possibilities in the field of secondary education (I would not be understood as implying that the case is the same in the field of college education), I feel that much of the heroic and, at times, even monumental work done in the field of the teaching of history is practically futile. The tendency of these men has been, as I see it, almost constantly to take for granted the value of history teaching, and to confine their efforts almost wholly to elaborating means and methods of realizing their "faith" aims. Only when we shall base our purposes on a direct understanding of social needs shall

we be able finally to do the kind of constructive work which I believe the future requires.

Again, as preliminary to what I shall say later, I wish to indicate my conviction that the controlling purpose of the general high school should be to offer liberal, as contrasted with vocational, education. Hence the purposes of history, as well as of most other subjects taught in the general high school, should be capable of definition in terms of better citizenship and greater general culture. It is quite probable that in the vocational school, as such (and we are destined to see a very wide development of special vocational schools in the near future, I believe), we shall also have certain specific forms of history. These, however, will be organized with reference to the need of giving the prospective worker in any given department of human effort some insight into the historical bearings of the processes and materials of his calling, or of the craft to which he belongs. This will be special history, and I anticipate little difficulty in working out its materials and methods, when once the purpose of the vocational school shall have come to be clearly defined.

How, then, are we to find valid aims wherewith to guide and control us in the teaching of history? We must, as I see it, first define for ourselves, in concrete and quite exhaustive ways, the powers and accomplishments which we wish to find in the adult of average type whom it is the purpose and the demonstrated object of the schools to train. Having defined for ourselves the qualities of this adult, we must work back, analyzing the proper training procedures, until finally, at a specific point, we can choose and adapt materials necessary to the training contemplated.

Leaving out of account the question of the vocational capacity of the adult, we shall find that the desirable qualities, apart from those given by heredity and the influences of his more or less uncontrolled environment, as well as those contributed by other educational agencies such as the home, the church, and general participation in social life, may be considered in two chief groups, namely: those that we sometimes comprehend under the term "personal culture," and those that we comprehend under the term "citizenship." Under the head of personal culture, we include permanent esthetic and intellectual interests, as well as a mastery of the instruments necessary to their constitution and development. These intellectual interests will vary greatly among different human beings, thus giving variety and incentive to communication among various groups. Our permanent interests in various forms of art, in literature, in science, in travel and in social intercourse for pleasure, may be comprehended under this group.

Under the head of citizenship we include all qualities making for the more effective group life, including submission to established political order, co-operative maintenance of the same, and a great variety of social qualities which we sometimes designate as the social virtues, or moral worths.

Now, it is clear that for many people the study of history, as even now organized, may be placed in the first category. We all recognize among our associates persons who have permanent intellectual interests in some field of history, from which they derive much pleasure, and through the pursuit of which they acquire certain qualities which we recognize as personal culture. It is doubtful, however, as to how far the school is under obligation to promote by any extraordinary means the development of these purely cultural interests. At any rate, their development should take place largely through studies elected and not prescribed. I have no doubt that secondary school and college should open ample opportunity for the development of these intellectual interests, as these institutions presumably do in the fields of art, science and literature.

But it is as an agency in social education or in training for citizenship that many of us have come greatly to value history. History, at its best, is a record of the facts of social development. It is the story of social action, of the operations of men working and contending in groups.

The obligation is always on society so to train its younger members as to make them fit to carry on the group life. The boys and girls of the State, no less than the boys and girls of the tribe, must be fitted to receive and perpetuate, and improve the folk ways, the folk virtues, the folk standards and the folk ideals. Modern society is ever becoming more complicated, and the burden of co-operatively keeping its machinery in running order is becoming heavier. The responsibilities, therefore, of social education—meaning thereby the broader moral as well as the broader civic education—are daily becoming larger. The means and methods of this education are as yet by no means clear, especially when we leave the domain of the field of unconscious or half conscious suggestion and control, and pass into the domain of the systematic and purposeful formation of social habits, development of social intelligence, and inspiration of social ideals.

It is in this field, therefore, that we see the largest opportunity for utilizing the materials of history. Having once conceived of the citizen as we should like to have him in his normal type, we can work back, and by analysis find the numberless specific forms of training by which we can produce this type.

Here, however, we come to what seems to me the almost revolutionary requirement to be imposed upon history teaching in the future. That history teaching, if it is to be pedagogically sound, as I see it, must be based primarily and systematically upon a fairly well defined knowledge of the social institutions of the present. Here, to my mind, is to be found the greatest single defect in history teaching as now practiced. In our high schools we teach the history of any period as something quite by itself, and almost entirely out of functional relation to the present. I am aware that there are some exceptions to be found among "live" teachers who are continually using illustration and parallel cases from

the present to fortify their teaching. What I refer to, however, is secondary school teaching as exemplified in our text-books, teachers' manuals and syllabi, and to such teaching as is found in the great majority of our high schools. That history is based upon the chronological order. It treats of a given period in the world's history in systematic fashion, and almost completely without reference to contemporary conditions, whether these are related or unrelated to the history under consideration.

It seems to me, indeed, that history as taught is based upon what is sometimes called the "cold storage" theory of education. Under the cold storage theory of education, the mind of the learner can be stored with certain knowledge, consisting sometimes of detailed facts and sometimes of generalizations, and the matter thus stored can be drawn upon at some future time when a situation is encountered that demands its employment. Any ordinary text-book of Greek history illustrates this point. Greek history is very frequently taught in the American high school, in the first or second year of the course, to boys and girls who are from 14 to 16 years of age. These youths have had comparatively little contact with the phenomena of social life—that is, political and economic life and social intercourse generally—and even in the case of that with which they have had contact there has been little or no interpretation. Nevertheless, these very immature pupils are expected in some way to master the facts, the highly condensed generalizations and the descriptions of Greek political life, Greek economic achievement, Greek religion and Greek thought. What they actually accomplish, at their best, is to memorize a very long series of verbal statements regarding the various phases of Greek life. In their examinations, college entrance or other, they reproduce with greater or less fidelity these memorized statements. The underlying notion seems to be that the knowledge thus memorized may constitute, for the present, a basis of culture, and may be drawn upon at some future time in case it should seem profitable to do so.

It is not to be denied that within limits—which are very marked limits, indeed—the cold storage theory of education has value. It is possible for youths to memorize in verbal fashion some things, and later to make use of the facts and rules thus learned. Again, it is not to be denied that some individuals, by virtue of a peculiar mental endowment, are able to carry this process very far, indeed. I have no doubt that there are persons so constituted that they can learn a foreign language best by memorizing a small dictionary of its terms and certain grammatical formulae, after which they can draw upon the material thus stored, in the translation or construction of sentences, at will.

But I think experience now abundantly demonstrates that, as far as the rank and file of people are concerned, the cold storage theory of education very early, indeed, breaks down completely. Most of the work, I am convinced, now done in our high schools in the elaborate teaching of Greek and Roman his-

tory is practically utterly futile, either from the standpoint of evoking cultural interests or of giving a basis, of any kind whatever, for civic action.

Opposed to the cold storage theory of education is the other, which we shall here call the "assimilation" or "participation" theory. (Comprehensive and adequate treatments of these distinctions may be found in appropriate pedagogical works.) Under this theory, so far as the rank and file of persons are concerned, the acquisition of new knowledge, the development of new habits, the growth of new ideals, take place chiefly on the basis of knowledge, habits and ideals already existing, and through modification, enlargement, sub-division and intensification of these. If we wish to lead a young person into new fields, we take him where he is, with his present equipment, and build upon that. This is the natural method, it is the method evoking fundamental interest, and it is the method that in all lines of sound pedagogical development we are striving to attain.

Now, the application to the teaching of history, of the "assimilation theory of learning" presupposes that, prior to taking the learner into any field that is remote in point of space or time, he shall become familiar with the corresponding aspects of his own contemporary environment. This, as I see it, furnishes the keynote to the reorganization of the teaching of social science and history as we shall find it, I believe, in the future. Fundamentally, the pupil will start with the present, becoming familiar with it and on the basis of this knowledge going into the past. The teacher of history under these conditions will, first of all, have to be a teacher of contemporary social science. She will not feel qualified to take her pupils into any period of the past until they have become thoroughly acquainted with what their own environment has to teach them as a basis for the remoter knowledge.

Furthermore, the application of this theory greatly disturbs her naive conceptions as to the teaching of history as a unity. Probably the unity of history is a conception fit for the very mature and scholarly mind only. Young people certainly do not grasp their own environment as a unity, and it is difficult to see how they can grasp the social constitution of any period of the past otherwise than in a fragmentary fashion, with, of course, a constant striving towards a comprehension of the inter-relationships of parts thus comprehended.

The young learner comprehends his social environment partly in accordance with the appeal which that makes to his needs and his interests. He understands phases of his domestic life before he comprehends the economic life of his community. He can be made to see the civic organization of his home town before he can comprehend the governmental organization of his state or nation. There are stages in the evolution of the mind of the youth as this relates to a mastery of his social environment which are quite capable of definition. Indeed, steps are now being taken in the direction of teaching social

science in our high schools wherein these stages have obtained fairly well marked recognition.

Now, if we are willing, for the moment, to surrender our ideas as to the teaching of history in the chronological order, and also as to teaching history as a unity (which is surely never realized in practice), then it would appear possible so to adjust the teaching of history to the study of contemporary social science as to make out of the two phases of the one subject a study of the utmost importance. To this end, it will be first of all necessary that we organize the means and methods of teaching what is here called "contemporary social science"—that is, systematically assisting our young people to interpret their social environment and to comprehend those phases of it which are not immediately visible, more adequately. Having done this, it will then be easily possible to take them into periods, however remote in history, with a view to enlarging their perspective and giving them more adequate comprehension of that which is beyond their immediate ken.

For example, experience has demonstrated that boys and girls of fourteen or fifteen years of age can be made quite readily to understand the more concrete aspects of the social phenomena of the exchange of commodities as this is manifested in their own environment. They can be led to see the need for importations and for exportations. They can comprehend the means, including facilities for transportation, money, etc., by which this interchange of commodities is effected. Having obtained a fair mastery of this knowledge, it is not difficult for them to use their imagination in connection with the concrete evidences which may be obtained, and to secure a fair comprehension of what was meant by the interchange of commodities, let us say, in the eighteenth century in America, or the sixteenth century in England, or the thirteenth century in the Mediterranean, or the first century with Rome as a centre, or at earlier periods when the Greeks, or the Phoenicians, or the Cretans dominated the commerce of the civilized world.

Again, the social phenomena associated with local government can be made, in the first or second year of the high school, quite comprehensible to pupils. Having this knowledge upon which to build, the phenomena of local government at other times and places can be studied. Modern warfare presents many phenomena easily accessible to the high school pupil, as to its inciting causes, its processes and its results. This knowledge can become a basis where-with to interpret those aspects of warfare of the past which, from the standpoint of the equipment of the citizen, it seems important to study.

The process here indicated is capable of almost indefinite development. Two or three facts must be noted in connection with it, however. In the first place, it seems to involve a dissected, departmentalized, and even fragmentary treatment of history. It is a question whether this is not inevitable in any profitable use of history as an instrument of pragmatic action. But the time will come, sooner or later,

when the pupil should perceive at least something of the unity of history. From my point of view, this should be a topic for consideration almost every year in the course of the pupil's development. Very early the pupil will have learned to sense the difference between the near and the remote in terms of time. Somewhere in the elementary school a very simple chronological chain is capable of being built on the basis of certain significant events or personalities of the historic period. Every year, in the course of his school life, a few days or weeks spent in inserting new links in this chronological chain would be sufficient to insure the pupil against breaking his history up into separate and unrelated compartments.

In the second place, the treatment of history here suggested involves bringing to bear constantly the matter of choice. Materials must be taken from particular periods or times because of their bearing upon the present or upon the immediate future of the learner. No event in history, just because it was an important event in its time, is utilized unless its use can be shown to be of importance to the present. From time to time, of course, illustrative materials will be employed for their own sake; but, on the whole, only those facts, generalizations, conclusions or parallels will be used which can be shown to be of importance. Let us illustrate this from one of the examples given above. It has been said that the pupil, having mastered something of his own economic environment, as that is affected by interchange of commodities, can study the history of the social phenomena of exchange. But the question at once occurs: "How much of this history prior, let us say, to the year 1810, is of importance?" We cannot fail to recognize that the application of steam power to land and water transportation has effected an almost complete revolution as regards the interchange of commodities. It has resulted in territorial differentiation of industry on a perfectly gigantic scale. Certain sections of the world now confine themselves almost exclusively to manufacture, others to mining, others to various special forms of agriculture. Of what extensive use, therefore, to the citizen of the future, is an exhaustive study of transportation conditions as they existed prior to 1810? The study would be about as profitable as would be the exhaustive study, by a man preparing for the activities of a military leader, of warfare carried on by use of bows and arrows, spears and coat of mail.

From this point of view, therefore, the importance of historic study, or of the mastery of any particular materials of history, rapidly recedes in proportion as the period loses direct connection with our own. This suggests, indeed, an interesting reflection on much of history as now taught in our secondary schools. Both in the school and college we have commonly taught history down to the beginning of the nineteenth century. We have rarely had the courage to take our pupils into the history of that century, although, from the point of view of this paper, it is within that century that our pupils should find the greater abundance of the materials which they can use profitably.

But it is not merely organized knowledge that we wish to obtain for the use of the citizen of the future. There are certain attitudes of mind that equally must be cultivated. As a rule, however, these also can be best developed in connection with what is here called the study of social science, the materials of history being employed to fortify and extend such knowledge. Let us take, as a further example, one of the demands which has recently confronted even teachers of history. I refer to the endeavor to have the pupils trained in schools in the so-called "habit of suspended judgment," or of a critical attitude towards the current materials of rumor, social suggestion and report. Those who have interested themselves in the so-called "source methods" of the teaching of history have laid great emphasis on the importance of having pupils trained in making their own historical deductions and generalizations, and to this end have endeavored as far as practicable to bring before the pupils the various and often conflicting statements, reports and sources available.

The adherent of the "assimilation theory" of education at once raises the question as to why these various valuable attitudes should not be produced in connection with the study of contemporary materials. Surely we have in the various morning and afternoon papers of almost every city, enough material illustrative of the certain and uncertain effects of rumor, report, sensational statement, malignant insinuation, etc. Any intelligent teacher would be capable of assembling the more important material of this sort and in the course of a few weeks, by use of our weeklies and other means of assembling information, be able to show wherein fact lies, and what are accurate and reliable deductions that may be made. The difficulty in the case of the teacher of "source" history has always been to get enough materials to illustrate any particular point. Even with reference to so recent an enterprise as our Civil War, it is becoming increasingly difficult to obtain sufficiently comprehensive materials wherewith to train pupils in this field. If, however, we build upon the present, training the critical attitude with reference to materials so abundant as the daily newspaper and the monthly magazine, then it becomes possible to extend the scope of our work by reference to particular historical periods which were fertile in conflicting report, and also to show our pupils something of the difference between the present and the past as to the availability of reliable information.

Finally, let us note that the citizen of the future must be systematically equipped with ideals of right social action. Here, again, surely we can find our largest opportunities in the life of the present, and here, also, the various periods of history provide us with opportunities for enlargement of vision, for the giving of perspective, and perhaps, also, for a study of the effects upon social conduct of the ideals which, held by a sufficient number of individuals, were potent enough to be called social.¹

¹ Based upon an address given before the New England History Teachers' Association, May 2, 1914.

What History Shall We Teach?

BY PROFESSOR GEORGE L. BURR, OF CORNELL UNIVERSITY.

It was fitting that Dr. Snedden's topic should come before my own. Before we can discuss what history we should teach, we must have an understanding as to the purpose of our history teaching. That I could seem to attempt it was partly because I knew that Dr. Snedden would speak first, but partly, too, because these are not the first words I have the honor to speak to you. A decade ago, discussing with you by your invitation the relations of geography with history, I tried to tell you how and why history must differ in purpose from the sciences of nature. Three years ago, talking again to you at your Dartmouth meeting, I set forth to you my notion of "History as a Teacher," and sought to prove that history—even the old-fashioned history which recounts, instead of counting (as Max Nordau would now have us do)—answers to an appetite native to us all from babyhood, an appetite not less clamorous and not less sane than that for knowledge—nay, that history is the very essence of that "literature of power" which a century ago De Quincey taught us to rate yet higher than the literature of knowledge. I tried to show you that, though it too brings us knowledge, it is more precious far as training for imagination, sympathy, insight, judgment, as nurture of character and spur to effort. I even ventured to suggest in outline the changing needs it too must change to meet, if it would keep pace with the growing life of child and youth.

Of course, I cannot expect you to have remembered all this; but, since you have made it accessible in print, and since perhaps to it I owe the invitation to address you now, you will permit me to recall it. And I do so the more gladly, because to do so is the best answer I could make to Dr. Snedden's charge that we teachers give no thought to the ultimate purpose of our teaching. But Dr. Snedden himself, as I had hoped, has prepared the way yet better for what I have to urge. Gladly I accept his statement of the ultimate ends of teaching in general and of history teaching in particular. No more than he do I believe in what he calls "cold-storage history"—in any history that has not as its end the making of men and women for the now and here. And with him I willingly limit our discussion to the teaching of history in secondary schools—or in those great elementary classes of the earlier college years which still must do the work of secondary schools.

But a question he has asked suggests so wide a divergence between us as to the nature and method of history that I must pause just here to deal with it. He asks us what we can do for the student through the teaching of history that cannot be better done for him through other studies. But is it not the very *raison d'être* of history that it does for us what no other study even undertakes to do? Such, at least, seems the conviction, not only of historians,

but of those whose business it is to classify the sciences. Other studies, tell us the logicians, aim to give us generalized knowledge. Their interest is in law or class or type. Their very first step is to discern that which is common to the members of a group. They may start, indeed, from the isolated object, the single fact; but it is only to assign it to a class by eliminating from our thought of it all that marks its individual difference from its fellows. Even the sciences of society concern themselves as such, not with the varying men and women of real life, but with the average man, the "economic man," the men and groups of men deducible from statistics. They start, that is to say, with an abstraction, and by their very nature must remain abstract. Aiming only at knowledge, they leave us cold. Concerned with laws, they too often ignore or even deny our freedom. "On the altar of her point of view (*Erkenntnis*)," says Gumplowicz, "sociology sacrifices—man! He, the lord of creation, whom the historian counts the author of historical events, as monarch or minister guiding at his will the destiny of peoples, before the tribunal of history bearing the full responsibility for his acts, and receiving from the historian praise or blame, as the case may be—he sinks in sociology to a cipher, void of all significance. In direct opposition to the portrayals of the historians, even the mightiest statesman is for the method (*Betrachtungsweise*) of the sociologist only a blind tool in the invisible but all-powerful hand of his social group, which itself in turn only follows an irresistible social law of nature." History alone has an eye to the concrete, the individual. As a great logician not long since pointed out to us, history is the one science of reality. And to me its worth as a study lies pre-eminently in this, its dealing with actual men and states and peoples.

But why, I hear myself asked by somebody among you whose studies have dealt mainly with other fields, why should anybody care to know about mere individuals—individual men or individual peoples. Ah, but that is to forget that we are not mere observers in this world. Were we but lookers-on from the fixed stars, we might be content with knowledge; and knowledge might content itself with type and class. But we ourselves are of the world we study, and we ourselves are more than students. We must not only know, but live and act; and training for life and action, as all men know in the world of affairs, comes through touch with other men. Only so come tact and insight, taste and enthusiasm, purpose and effort. What travel and acquaintance do for us in the now and here, that must history do for us as our vision broadens. It is but travel into time instead of into space; it is acquaintance with larger affairs, more varied communities, more experienced leaders. Does Dr. Snedden ask us what the study of history has ever done for anybody? I ask him what has been, what

is to-day, the favorite reading of men of action everywhere. Is it not the story of men? And how many of these readers of history have been both makers and writers of it? Take but a single modern state. Who in France a century ago had the largest share in bringing in the Bourbon reaction? Was it not Chateaubriand? Who in overthrowing it? Was it not Guizot? Who in undermining the burgher monarchy of Louis Philippe and Guizot, and bringing back the Bonapartes? Was it not Thiers? Who in discrediting the Bonapartes and the Bonapartist tradition? Was it not Michelet, Quinet, Lanfrey, Louis-Blanc? Another historian who was lately premier of France—Gabriel Hanotaux—has just told us, indeed, that only a statesman is fit to write the history of a state; but all the statesmen who have made or written history have been first the students of it. And to followers that study has meant not less than to leaders. Nor is it the history of states alone that has inspired to action. Yesterday as I took my train I found on the station platform an acquaintance—an Ithaca tailor whom I have met when my Socialist neighbors have asked me to speak to them. "Say," he called to me, "what do you suppose I've been reading?" "What is it?" I asked. "Well, you see," said he, "I have bought that *Harvard Classics* set of President Eliot's, and what do you think is the first thing he makes me read? *Plutarch's Lives*—and I'm enjoying every word of it." *Plutarch's Lives!* What a role has that played among the world's inspirers!

No, I do not fear that history will be laid aside as useless. Much more do I fear lest history prove too potent—potent for ill or for less than the highest. And with all my heart I echo Dr. Snedden's warm plea for a history that is in touch with life, a history whose aim is not learning, but serviceable manhood and womanhood. But what history can best give us this? What history shall we teach?

The answers have been many; but those most current seem to me to simmer down to three. Foremost and most numerous are those who would have us teach *all* history. That is the dream of all the older curricula, and surely there is much to say for it. In order to find our way in the world of time we must have a map, even as in the world of space. No comprehensive view, no true perspective, is possible without it. We might as well send out for budding men and women ignorant that the world is round or of the place upon it of the lands with which henceforward they must daily have to do, as to let them pass into society without a knowledge of the sequence of peoples in the story of civilization, the names and deeds of the torch-bearers of progress. These, too, are of the current coin of human thought.

And it has well been urged, too, that only by a survey of history as a whole can we be brought into the full tide of human effort and made to feel our part and place in the upward struggle. Only so can we know all men our brothers, and ourselves with them the heirs of all the ages. Nor will any who have read that marvelous lecture on "The Connection of His-

tory" into which Frederic Harrison has condensed the whole story of human progress, or the eloquent little volume on "The Living Past," in which a younger English scholar has in these last months sketched the rise of man, object that so vast a theme cannot be made intelligible and interesting, even to a high school class.

A survey of general history, then, let us by all means provide for; but I am not one of those who still believe it the only or the chief thing needed. What has made so grotesque most of the attempts to depict universal history by a chart, as we do geography, has been the glaringness with which these have betrayed the inequalities and the vast gaps in our knowledge. Even since that late day, when man, already venerable, began to have a record of his history, it has been only here and there and for limited periods that an advancing civilization has made that record adequate for the historian's use. Those who have used narrative instead of chart have obscured the gaps, but they have not escaped them. What they have given us is largely not history, but only the philosophy of history. That philosophy, if frankly such, is an ennobling discipline; but we must not let it supplant the soberer study which is ours of right. Even those stretches of general history which rest on sober evidence are, for the most part, on too vast a scale, too epic in their sweep and their remoteness, to tempt to that free handling by teacher and by student which alone can make the study of history really live.

This defect it is which Dr. Snedden has scored so pungently with those phrases from Mr. H. G. Wells. Mr. Arnold Bennett has thrust at it not less valiantly, making his hero Clayhanger, fresh from the public schools, "aware of the rivers of Asia in their order, and of the principal products of Uruguay," but ignorant of where the water of his own town came from. "For him," he tells us, "history hung unsupported and unsupporting in the air." "In the course of his school career he had several times approached the nineteenth century, but it seemed to him that for administrative reasons he was always being dragged back to the Middle Ages." The Middle Ages: they especially have been a red rag to reformers. In the saucy pages of *Life*, one thus tilts against them: "Nobody has ever yet satisfactorily explained why professors are engaged to teach mediaeval history. . . . There are three major objections. . . . (1) It isn't true, (2) it isn't interesting, and (3) it is of no value. But even if it were all of these things, . . . the most [the student] carries away with him is a confused jumble of Goths, and Visigoths, and Huns, and Vandals, and Diets, and Papal Bulls, and Charles the Hammers, and James the Maniacals, and Thomas the Colerics, and William the Dyspeptics, and so on through the entire gamut of pathology. He knows that they were fighting all the time, that the map changed every other Wednesday, and that the kings and knights and princes and barons and other personages remind him of a kaleidoscope hitched to a perpetual motion machine. But he doesn't know what it's all about."

Now I submit that this writer has brought away with him a tolerably effective notion of the Middle Ages, at least for purposes of controversy. At any rate, he knows enough of them not to want to go back there—and that is more than can be said of some reformers. He will not even admit that they are interesting. Well, but there are those who affirm that no history is interesting. And, on the other hand, here is Mr. Chesterton—Mr. Chesterton who is nothing if not contrary. "In my innocent and ardent youth," he says, "I had a fixed fancy. I held that children in a school ought to be taught history and ought to be taught nothing else. . . . Nobody can possibly see any sense in learning geography or in learning arithmetic—both studies are obviously nonsense. But on the eager eve of Austerlitz, when Napoleon was fighting a superior force in a foreign country, one might see the need for Napoleon knowing a little geography and a little arithmetic. I thought that if people would only learn history, they would learn to learn everything else. Algebra might seem ugly, yet the very name of it is connected with something so romantic as the Crusades, for the word is from the Saracens. Greeks might be ugly until one knew the Greeks, but surely not afterwards. History is simply humanity. And history will humanize all studies, even anthropology."

Is it just possible that interest depends, in part, on how a subject is handled? Professor Goddard, who in the May "Century," has just been discussing "what is wrong with the college," avers that the trouble is with the teacher, and that any subject, even mathematics, can be made interesting if only it is brought into living touch with life. And so great a teacher as Thomas Arnold, of Rugby, long ago maintained that for the study of history "the particular subject is of little moment, so long as it be taken neither from the barbarian nor the romantic, but from the philosophical or civilized stage of human society, and so long as the writer be a man of commanding mind."

This, then, is a second answer to our question, "What history shall we teach?" "Any old history. It all depends on the teacher." This view, too, has had many advocates; and again I am glad to applaud. There is no subject in which the teacher counts for so much. Whether it be in those earliest years when teaching is everything, or in those latest, when teaching, as such, is an impertinence, and all the pupil needs is a scholar as model and companion, or anywhere in the years between, it is of far less moment what is taught than how. "First of all—the teacher of history," I tell my class when it is mine to have a class of teachers, "must be alive." Teach mathematics, if you will, or even a language, when you are tired or stupid; but never history. Be ignorant of your lesson if you must, be even ignorant of your subject; but go into your class in history well, fresh, brimming with life. For the very essence of history is life; and you will teach more history out of the shreds and patches in your memory, nay, out of an empty memory but a living heart, than out of a head, be it never so crammed, that has not heart and soul

to make alive the tale it tells. But that is not to say that life is all; that any skill in teaching can be enough. So to hold would be a fallacy peculiarly American. In this new land of ours we have put manhood first. We have come to think a good man must be good for anything. Once he has made good as a man, we have taken all else on trust. But our age of makeshift is passing. We are tiring of men of the glad hand, and sigh for expert knowledge. The fine fellows who might have been anything, and therefore thought it safe to be nothing in particular, are falling behind in the race. Even teachers begin to need more than character and the power to teach. I trust these will always count. In history, at least, I trust they will always be put foremost. But I trust, too, that the competition will henceforward be so sharp that the teacher of history who would win and keep a place must know both his subject and his lessons. Now, history is a vast field. To know it well enough to teach it, even in the secondary school, demands not only a general knowledge, but, in some one field at least, such special training as acquaints with the sources and equips for their use. I am not suggesting that high school students should be taught research. But even in the high school the student must learn what research is, and must have at least such tempting foretastes as shall stir in him a life-long appetite, and leave him no longer the bond-slave of authority. The teacher's preparation for such work is not a matter to be got up over night or even in the sultry leisure of a summer vacation; and the school which is so happy as to possess the teacher amply trained in any field to do such work may well bend its curriculum to suit its teacher's field.

But surely this need not mean that for the purpose of the schools one period of history is as good as another. Even Dr. Arnold stipulated that the history for study should be of civilized society; and, when he wrote, the study was only reading. In our day, when history has a place in the curriculum and we have learned its uses as a discipline, demand must be more strenuous. No more than in the teaching of any other science can the discipline have its full value unless to some extent the student, before he is through with it, is made to deal himself at first hand with the raw materials of scholarship. To that end it is not enough that the teacher be equipped to put them in his hands and guide him in their use. The materials themselves must—for the high school pupil, at least—be in speech and matter so intelligible, so pertinent to matters within his own experience and interests, that he may dare to test them by his own powers and form about them his own opinions. Whatever our translations and our source books have done for us—and they have vitalized our instruction over a vastly broadened field—the full emancipation which history should bring can come only where the student can begin to feel at home with sources and with theme.

This is, I trust, one of the reasons why we have preferred to treat the history of England and of America most fully, and to make them the latest fields for high school study. True, mere chronological order might go far to justify this. And that sug-

gests another consideration yet more weighty. Dr. Snedden has already urged that our teaching of history must put our students in touch with the present; and heartily do I acclaim his earnest words. I welcome the new teaching of contemporary history. I rejoice in that broadening of our study as we approach the present which has been urged upon us by the Committee of Five. I welcome, above all, that inclusion of the history of toil and trade, of thought and art and letters, of civilization and society in all their activities and interests, which has made our classes a better introduction to the complex life of our time.

But I am not so sure that I can go with Dr. Snedden all the way. He asks us, if I understood him aright, why all our history for the schools should not be drawn from the life of the present. Certainly some would go so far: in place of any old history they would offer us any *new* history. Let me frankly confess that to me this seems much like history with the history left out. Has not the impulse something in it of that impatience which has made our newspapers, in their eagerness to be up to date, concern themselves less and less with last month, last week, even with yesterday, till they seem to some of us a sort of first aid to the frantic—rather guesses at the future than records of past or present? Did not the world a hundred years ago have sad experience of trying to get on without the past? The French Revolution has left us a noble heritage; but how nearly, through this narrowness of vision, it failed to leave a heritage at all. If history is to be of any use to the present, it must enlarge our horizon. Even my clever friend, Dr. Muzzey, who thinks that "if we dared to be quite honest," we should "often throw off the whole Pilgrim's pack of archons and ephors, Sabellians and Samnites, manorial courts leet and baron, princely genealogies and territorial barterings, and stretch our cramped minds in a huge 'Ouf!' of relief," and who goes so far as to maintain that "all our history teaching should be a running commentary on the origin and growth of the civilization in the midst of which we find our lot cast," protests that he is "not advocating the dilettante methods of the society women's current events club, with its suggestion of hasty and serviceable encyclopedia information." "The effective understanding of the great tendencies and trends of modern days goes," he says, "very deep into the past." But somehow I cannot help feeling that, even thus guarded, a running commentary on the origin and growth of our civilization lacks something of the full message of history. That prince of German scholars, Adolf Harnack, though he maintains that "only the history which is not yet wholly of the past, the history which is and remains a part of our present, has a claim to be known by all," adjures his hearers: "Whatever else you study, neglect not history." "Do not suppose that you can gather the fruits of scholarship without some inner touch with the personalities to whom we owe them and without knowing the path by which they have been found. No high revelation of science is a mere fact. Every one of

them has been once lived as an experience, and in the experience lies its worth as culture (*eine jede ist einmal erlebt worden, und an dem Erlebnis heftet ihr Bildungswert*). He who contents himself with making his own the results alone is like the gardener who plants his garden with cut flowers."

Ah, that is the heart of it. The culture worth of history lies not in our knowing the past, but in our living the past. If we would inherit its experience, we must pay the price of putting ourselves in its place—must weigh its difficulties, tremble with its fears, feel its yearnings, breathe its aspirations, share all the passion of its struggles and its victories. Thanks to the divine power of imagination and of sympathy, it can be done, and done in an infinitesimal part of the time it took to live it once. In literature we do it daily, and no man doubts its influence upon us. But it is from history that literature selects and shapes the stuff with which she stirs us; for what is drawn from human life is drawn from history. And when her milk has made us ready for the solid meat of history, history is yet more potent, and by so much as it is more true, more real, with room for larger groups and wider interests. To single out in the present those things which interest us and trace back narrowly their pedigrees is genealogy, not history. It is like that study of language which was content with hunting out the etymologies of words, and had not learned to follow as a living thing the growth of speech.

Nor is it only for true knowledge of the past that we must thus free ourselves from too slavish a dependence on the present. The present itself cannot be truly seen except by such detachment. Surely no man of our time has shown an interest more vital in present-day affairs than did Lord Acton; and surely none more fruitfully than he brought history to bear upon them. Warmly he commends the French for teaching in their schools contemporary history, and he hopes that England will follow their example. But not at the cost of older history. "The living," he says, "do not give up their secrets with the candour of the dead;" and "beyond the question of certainty is the question of detachment. . . . Our most sacred and disinterested convictions ought to take shape in the tranquil regions of the air, above the tumult and the tempest of active life. . . . History compels us to fasten on abiding issues, and rescues us from the temporary and the transient." Nor is the impingement of the past upon us to be measured by its nearness in time. "A speech of Antigone, a single sentence of Socrates, a few lines that were inscribed on an Indian rock before the Second Punic War, the footsteps of a silent yet prophetic people who dwelt by the Dead Sea, and perished in the fall of Jerusalem, come nearer to our lives than the ancestral wisdom of barbarians who fed their swine on the Hercynian acorns." Even Gabriel Tarde, the sociologist, whom some would count the very spokesman of what they call "the continuity of history," is far from making consecutive in time or space the imitation which is to him the essence of that continuity. "It exerts its influence," he says, "not only

from afar, but across great intervals of time. It establishes a fruitful influence between leader and follower thousands of years apart—between Lycurgus and a member of the French Convention, between the Roman painter of a Pompeian fresco and the modern designer whom it has inspired." It is, in short, "generation at a distance." And the great acts of human initiative which thus perpetuate themselves by imitation are to him the one source of social life and progress. Or, as Lord Acton puts it: "In this age of full-grown history, men have not acquiesced in the given conditions of their lives. Taking little for granted, they have sought to know the ground they stand on, and the road they travel, and the reason why. Over them, therefore, the historian has obtained an increasing ascendancy." It is the historian who enables us "to share the existence of societies wider than our own, to be familiar with distant and exotic types, to hold our march upon the loftier summits, along the central range, to live in the company of heroes, and saints, and men of

genius, that no single country could produce." And, again, Lord Acton reverts to the emancipating power of history: "History must be our deliverer, not only from the undue influence of other times, but from the undue influence of our own, from the tyranny of environment and the pressure of the air we breathe. It requires all historic forces to produce their record, submit to judgment, and it promotes the faculty of resistance to contemporary surroundings by familiarity with other ages and other orbits of thought."

Did ever any age more than ours need such emancipation from the blinding dust of its own controversies in state and in society? Dr. Snedden tells us, indeed, that if in the distance the mountains seem to stand out more clear, it is only because we are too far off to discern the foot-hills. Yet even if so, is it nothing to us that above the foot-hills they stand at last revealed in their blue wholeness?

But can children get all this out of history? Read that little book of Mary Sheldon Barnes.¹

Pageants and Local History

BY LOTTA A. CLARK, BOSTON.

Whatever our aims may be in teaching history, the final test of their success is the conduct of our citizens. We used to say very glibly that history is taught to develop patriotism and to train for good citizenship. We do not hear that said so often nowadays, and we wonder sometimes to what extent we could prove that it does anything of the kind. Although we could prove but little, perhaps, we have evidence every day in people who serve the country to their utmost, in pursuance of an ideal. No matter how much knowledge, power and inspiration a man may have, he is rated in a community by what he *does* with them.

A pageant means doing one's local history. Each individual helps to give all the others a great community history lesson. The whole town is conscious of itself, of its traditions and its history. These are the topics of conversation in the family, in the street car, and in gatherings of all kinds. Neighbors chaff each other about their parts in the pageant; parents and children rehearse and plan together; and teachers discuss the episodes in their class-rooms. Clergymen emphasize the reasons for progress and success and business men listen with interest. Best of all, old and young of all classes and creeds find here a common field of enthusiastic interest and such fields of common interest are growing more rare. It gives the elders much food for thought and reflection which they enjoy thoroughly, while it also gives the youngsters plenty of chance for action which is so necessary for their pleasure in anything.

In the Charlestown Pageant, we brought back to life scenes of an Indian camp in old Mishawum, as

the Indians themselves used to call it. How the boys loved to do it; how lovely the girls looked in the costumes they had made; how pleased we were when one middle-aged lady in the audience asked, "If I get a costume, may I come in to-night?"

Then we saw Captain John Smith in the court of King James in England, showing a map of our coast which he had explored. We listen while little Prince Charles names our river for himself and expresses a hope that a town may grow up there and bear his name sometime. We feel a pang of sadness when we realize that the gay little Prince who named our town became Charles I of England and was beheaded. We never cared so much before.

Next comes Governor Winthrop to the great house made ready for him by the Sprague brothers and their neighbors. We go in turn to the Dame School; we welcome John Harvard and listen while he repeats the covenant which makes him one of our townsmen; we hear the town-crier's bell and look on gravely while the sheriff places a man in the stocks for speaking against the magistrates; and we hush the little ones who laugh and jeer at the culprit whose offense means nothing to them yet.

Paul Revere steals in and we are thrilled with excitement as he discovers the lanterns in the church-tower across the river; our hearts keep time to the clatter of hoofs as he rides away on the horse which Deacon Larkin had ready waiting for him. Then we live through the Bunker Hill battle day in the home of one of its soldiers who came there to have his

¹ An address delivered before the New England History Teachers' Association, May 2, 1914.

wounded arm bound up before going back to the hill to resist the third charge. Before he leaves them, he bids his aged mother and his brave little daughters to escape to safety across the Neck before the fire, kindled by the British cannon, reaches their home. There are tears in our eyes as we watch it all, for this is not acting—we are living through it all together.

But the days of rejoicing together as well are at hand. Washington comes to visit our town, and we greet him in the garden of the Frothinghams whose services for their country during the Revolution he has come to acknowledge. Later we lay the cornerstone of the great monument with the impressive Masonic ceremony, the sacred hymns, the venerable presence of Lafayette, and the immortal oration of Webster.

We listen with delight while the words of our present-day poet praise those of our townsmen whose work has brought fame and credit to us all. We see our young sculptor unveil his massive bust of Morse, the electrician, whose birthplace is but a stone's throw away. Our poet has admonished us to take up the torch and bear it on bravely as we make the history for the future. We answer the call by showing the mothers among us, gowned in the garbs of many nations, and bearing in their arms the babies, the citizens of to-morrow. We show how we will guard

them from disease and how cleanliness, good food, fresh air and sunshine shall build for them the sturdy bodies they will need to do the work which is soon to be theirs.

Then the whole pageant passes in order before our enthroned goddess, Liberty, all singing the hymns of patriotism which inspire resolutions for future faith and service. And then it is gone—but its memory, its lesson, will never be forgotten. The elders never tire of talking about it, and the youngsters act it out over and over again. Best of all, its funds, very substantial ones, have gone to give its "littlest citizens" a better chance for good health. Everyone feels that it has been worth while, and before many years some one will speak the irresistible thought, "Let's do it again!" We will, when our achievement shows real progress since the last one.

Charlestown is richer in its history than many localities are, but there is no place in the country which is lacking in gems of the past and hopes for the future which are only awaiting a pageant to express them. There have been more than forty pageants of the accepted type in this country alone during the past year. Pageantry has proved itself to be a powerful tool in the social, civic and educational work of any locality, and the history teacher, its moving spirit, has come into his own.¹

Using Magazines in History Classes²

BY J. MADISON GATHANY, A.M., HEAD OF THE HISTORY DEPARTMENT, HOPE STREET HIGH SCHOOL, PROVIDENCE, RHODE ISLAND.

Magazines have been used in my history classes for the last three years. The use of magazines in schools is a movement yet in its infancy; but I am fully convinced that no other recent movement has such possibilities for effective and intelligent citizenship.

In choosing the several magazines coming to our school, the following points have determined the choice: (1) the use of precise and exact English; (2) clearness and definiteness of presentation; (3) unquestioned scholarship; (4) painstaking care in giving to its readers only trustworthy and authoritative information; (5) lack of partisanship; (6) an aggressive policy for public good; and (7) its power and purpose to arouse public conscience.

It may not be out of place for me to remark that, in my opinion, "The Outlook" meets these seven requirements better than any other magazine that I know of. The avidity with which my pupils seize "The Outlook" upon its arrival and its thumb-worn condition at the end of the week indicate that it is the most popular and useful magazine among our students.

If all school authorities and teachers knew the great good that can be done by the use of magazines in classes, not a single school board in the United

States would fail to make financial provision for their utilization. Unless one observes the practical results of such work or makes use of such magazines himself, he will give this very important educational matter slight attention. There are two chief reasons why superintendents and principals do not more strongly advocate the use of magazines in schools; teachers have not demonstrated that pupils can be held down to definite preparation in such work, and they have not shown that the results would justify the expense and the change in curriculum and methods. The function of this article is twofold: first, to show that definite preparation can be secured; and, second, to show that the results do justify the expense and change.

How can pupils be held down to definite preparation when they use magazines as text-books? For lasting results, it will never do simply to ask or tell pupils to read a news item, an editorial, or a magazine article. We have tried several methods with most excellent results.

¹ Address delivered before the New England History Teachers' Association, May 2, 1914.

² Reprinted by special permission from "The Outlook," of August 20, 1914.

Method One

Have each pupil hand in an outline upon the subject which he has chosen or which has been assigned to him, arranged as follows:

- I. Topic: Interlocking Directorates.
- II. References:
 1. "The Outlook" (date and page).
 2. The "Literary Digest" (date and page).
 3. The "American Review of Reviews" (date and page).
 4. The "World's Work" (date and page).

III. Outline Points:

- A. Reasons why directorates interlock.
- B. Evils of interlocking directorates.
- C. How to unlock interlocking directorates.
- D. Criticisms of the President's attitude.
 1. Unfavorable.
 2. Favorable.

Under each sub-heading following III the pupils are required to present *definite, concrete* information, each different point being numbered. No outline is acceptable which is made up of general statements only. The teacher should ask different pupils to give to the class the results of their study, and the members of the class ought to take notes in a current history note-book while the reports are being given. The class should be held responsible by examination on what is reported to them. Such work calls for thoughtful reading and careful analysis.

Method Two

Require the class to keep in a current events notebook a weekly digest of at least ten events for each week. Have them arrange this work according to this plan:

I. Local Events (in the town, city or State).

- A. Name of the event.
 1. Reference.
 2. Summary of the event.
- B. (Arrange as under A).
- C. (Arrange as under A).
- D. (Arrange as under A).

II. National Events.

(Arrange A, B and C as under I).

III. International and Foreign Events.

(Arrange as under I).

Is it not obvious how students can be held down to definite preparation when asked to do their work according to this outline?

Method Three

Excuse four or five pupils from studying a given daily lesson in history, and ask them to report on some assigned topic, giving to each a different magazine reference. When the class assembles, give it a fifteen or twenty minute test on the lesson assigned in the text-book, and then call for the special reports. See that as a result of the class work all have in notebooks a uniform outline constructed of main topics furnished by the teacher (only so far as necessary) and sub-topics furnished by those reporting. When

this method is used, there is no cessation of the daily assignments of the text-book material, and the class gets in touch with current history.

Method Four

Have the class follow a very important local, National or international topic for several weeks, the teacher suggesting the headings under which the class is to organize the material. One illustration of this method will serve. Take the Mexican situation.

A. The leading facts of Mexican history up to President Wilson's Administration. (This serves as background work.)

- B. Wilson's Mexican policy.
 1. What it is.
 2. Favorable criticisms.
 3. Unfavorable criticisms.
 4. What would you do?

C. A daily tabulation of the important events while the topic is being followed.

D. An enumeration of the things learned about international affairs and how they are handled.

E. An enumeration of the things learned about National affairs.

1. The President and his powers.
2. The Congress and its powers.
3. The militia and the navy.

Method Five. Tests and Examinations

A. *Daily tests* on current events. On every current event day the class should be held to some definite test on the work assigned. The following daily test questions will show how a class can be held to definite preparation and results:

1. Name three local events. Which one do you think the most important? Give reasons.
2. Give the names of several National events. Write an *editorial* of about one hundred words on any one of them.
3. State definitely what you have learned about international and foreign affairs this week.

B. *Examinations* on current problems. Every four or five weeks a thoroughgoing examination should be given on the work covered. The following examination was given to one of my classes recently:

1. Discuss the following current problems:
 - (a) The literacy test for immigrants.
 - (b) The problem of rural credits.
 - (c) President Wilson's trust policy.
2. Home Rule for Ireland.
 - (a) Reasons why Ulster objects.
 - (b) Reasons why Ireland favors it.
3. Name six or seven other current events discussed in class, and comment on any two of them in such a way as to show an intelligent appreciation of the topics.
4. Give several arguments for and several against President Wilson's Mexican policy.
5. Reasons why high school pupils should study current problems.

Has not enough evidence been given to prove that pupils can be held down to as definite preparation in the study of magazines as in the study of text-

books? With this point settled, one of the most serious objections to the study of current events in schools has been met.

What can be said about results—the true test of every study in the school curriculum? I shall mention some of the more fundamental educational values in the study of current problems through the magazines. My own experience in doing such work with my classes has led me to the following conclusions:

1. Such a use of magazines shows our young people the material and process of history-making. It is nothing short of revelation to the young mind to find that history is not a matter of the past only, but is in the making; that the roots of the problems of to-day extend far into the years back of us; and that no civilized nation, as no individual, lives unto itself.

2. This kind of study also furnishes a most excellent way of studying civics. Facts learned from a text-book are soon forgotten. Ask yourself. But when pupils see just how town meetings, city councils, State legislatures, national congresses, and rulers handle public affairs and problems as they arise, the practical facts of civics become a permanent part of their intellectual life.

3. Work of this kind among the twenty millions who attend our schools and colleges gives them things really worth talking about, and correlates the work of the class-room more truly with life. School subjects are usually so far removed from life that many of our students lose interest in attending school and drop out. The barrenness and worthlessness of the conversation of pupils after they have spent from eight to sixteen years in our schools are humiliating.

4. Such a use of magazines furnishes our students with a *modern* vocabulary. This the average young person lacks. It is too fundamental a matter to neglect longer. Our boys and girls have not kept up with the growth of our vocabulary. Most pupils do little serious reading outside their text-books, and these usually leave off about the time pupils were born. As a result, they are out of touch with current thought and expression. This is one reason why almost all of our citizens from fifteen to twenty years of age do not read, much less enjoy, such magazines as "The Outlook," the "Literary Digest," the "American Review of Reviews," and the "World's Work." If the reader is inclined to think this point overemphasized, let him attempt to find out how thoroughly the average student understands and uses correctly common modern social, economic and political terms, and he will be convinced of the truth and importance of my contention.

5. A consistent and intelligent use of magazines in our schools helps to cultivate intelligent reading and tends to the formation of a liking for good reading. There is no question about this. It has been proved time and time again. Our schools could in the course of a few years do much in contributing to the real happiness and usefulness of millions. This result should be the aim of our public school system, maintained by the public at an expense of about \$500,000,000 each year.

6. Studying magazines in our schools aids greatly in developing intellectual honesty on the part of the future voter. We are a Nation of partisans yet, and the average father still desires his children to be of his political faith. The rising generations are brought up with narrow and prejudiced ideas about public men and institutions. Our schools have a wonderful opportunity to widen the views of young citizens in getting them to see more clearly, think more honestly, and judge men and movements more truly than has the average man in the past.

7. This use of magazines helps our young people to understand the important problems of our time, and does much in preparing them to aid in the solution of the problems of the future years. Such a study provides an intelligent basis for forming sound and trustworthy judgments on contemporaneous movements, institutions and leaders.

The very best way of finding out how much real good the study of current problems through the magazines does students, is to let them answer for themselves. Recently I asked all of the pupils in my classes that are studying magazines to give reasons why they should study current problems through such a medium. Among the many answers I found the following, which are here given almost verbatim:

It makes me think, whether I want to or not.

It awakens an interest in public matters.

It makes us see both sides of a question.

It puts one on his guard as to the policy of different magazines. This he would not know unless a magazine were followed rather consistently and compared with what other magazines have to say on the same questions.

If we had not taken up the study of different subjects in the magazines, I would have been added to the list of those who allow others to do their thinking for them.

Such a study has opened up a new field of interest and thought for me.

It leads to an intelligent appreciation and opinion of the topics of the day.

It lays the foundation for intelligent, non-partisan voting in the future.

It shows the advancement made in government, art, literature, science and international relations.

Such a study teaches us to think fairly and broad-mindedly.

We find out much about the beliefs of the different parties and party leaders, and thus we become interested in political discussions.

It is a valuable training for the citizens of tomorrow, and teaches one to be honest in his beliefs about public men, public questions and magazines.

It is particularly beneficial to the foreign element attending our schools, as it gives them an opportunity to form an intelligent opinion of their own about important public matters.

It lets us know who our leading men are, and why they believe as they do.

It not only keeps us informed as to what is going on, but it makes us feel that it is our duty to find out what is going on in our city, State, Nation and among the nations.

It reveals the needs of our city, State and Nation.

It pleases my parents when they see that I am able to talk intelligently about something worth while instead of fashions and parties.

It offers to each pupil a chance to express his own opinion.

Since we began our study of current problems there has been a big difference in the topics discussed in our home.

Now I can read the news columns, editorials and magazine articles with intelligence and delight.

We are always eager to see the latest newspaper and magazine and notice the development of the questions we have talked over in class.

The author of this article sincerely hopes that the great number of school superintendents, principals and teachers will see the far-reaching influence of such a use of magazines and the great good that can be done thereby. A few dollars spent for magazines each year by every school committee in the United States would greatly transform the thinking, the conversation and the reading habits of the millions who yearly receive education through our schools, would lead to greater civic devotion to the common good, and would educate our future voting citizens in public spirit.

Periodical Literature

MARY W. WILLIAMS, PH.D., EDITOR.

A serial account of the French Revolution, by H. Belloc, the historian, begins in the "Century" for September.

"England and America," a sonnet by Florence T. Holt, commemorative of the century of Anglo-American peace, may be found in the October "Atlantic."

To the Greek or Roman poet, according to F. A. Wright, sense was subordinate to sound. "The poet was a musician first and a logician afterwards" ("Edinburgh Review," July).

"The Kaiser and His People," by Professor Kuno Francke, of Harvard University ("Atlantic Monthly," October), is a presentation of the German point of view in connection with the present European war.

"The Unification of Germany," by Professor Albert Bushnell Hart, of Harvard University, the first article in a series on "The Historical Roots of the War," appears in the "Outlook" for September 23.

Much interesting side light is thrown upon French history by "A Diary of James Gallatin in Europe from the American Peace Through the Downfall of Napoleon and the Following Years," published in "Scribner's" for September and October.

"The Paris of the Tourist," an illustrated article by Anna Jules Case, appearing in "Die Woche" for July 25, serves to emphasize the contrast between the Europe of to-day and the Europe of three months ago.

In the "Catholic World" for September, Bertrand L. Conway presents an interesting study of the "Legend of Pope Joan," which among scholars to-day is unanimously rejected. The one conclusive argument against this mediaeval fable, the writer points out, is the chronological one.

"Some Aspects of West African Religions," an article by P. Amaury Talbot ("Edinburgh Review," July), gives much interesting information upon the African native's point of view, and makes a plea, in behalf of these backward peoples, for patience and charity of judgment.

The first part of a serial account of "Norway and the Norwegians from an American Point of View," by Price Collier ("Scribner's," October), is a very enthusiastic presentation. Scandinavia, the author believes, is "the cradle of all our Anglo-Saxon independence, morals, temperament and liberties."

The July "Quarterly Review" contains an article by H. Dodwell on "The Beginnings of the East India Company," and one by H. Stuart Jones, illustrated from bas reliefs, on "The Mysteries of Mithras," the cult which for a time was a rival of Christianity and just fell short of becoming a universal religion.

An article upon "Marie Antoinette and Barnave," by Lord Eversley, containing many extracts from letters which passed between the French Queen and Barnave, a leader of the constitutional party in the Constituent Assembly, is to be found in the "Nineteenth Century and After" for August.

The Russian Douma has rendered its greater service to Russia, according to E. A. Goldenweiser, in that it has furnished "a forum where opinions can be voiced with impunity and has made it possible for the members to educate the people to a realization that their interests will be better taken care of under a constitutional than under an autocratic regime" ("Political Science Quarterly," September.)

The September issue of "World's Work" is a "War Manual," in which the present European conflict is treated from many points of view. The number includes the following articles: "Why the Nations Fight," by Albert Bushnell Hart; "The Alliances that Made the War," by Rollo Ogden; "Austria's Civilizing Mission," by "An Austrian Diplomat;" "The Effect of the War on the United States," by Charles Frederick Carter; "What America Thinks of the War," by C. D. M.

"Armageddon—the Forging of a Great Peace," by Henry Norman, M.P. ("Scribner's Magazine," October), presents from the English standpoint an outline of the causes of the European conflict, and discusses the lining up of the combatants. The terms of peace, the writer believes, will result in establishing permanent peace, for they will be "such as will make war impossible for long enough to reach the time when the peoples of the world will demand that war shall cease forever."

Books relating to the American Indian are listed in a recent catalogue of the Arthur H. Clark Co., of Cleveland, O. The list includes not only the more extended works upon American Indians, such as the books by McKenney, Schoolcraft and Catlin, but also many works dealing with frontier life, describing journeys in the near and the far West and accounts of Indian Wars. The same firm has also issued a catalogue of second-hand books relating to the American Civil War. The list is particularly strong in works on Abraham Lincoln, war newspapers, works on reconstruction, the sanitary commission and an important collection on slavery.

A Select Bibliography for the History of Europe in the Past Twenty-five Years

BY CLARENCE PERKINS, PH.D., PROFESSOR OF EUROPEAN HISTORY, OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY.

The number of books and magazine articles dealing with the recent history of Europe is so large that a complete list of them would be of little value to the information seeker. The purpose of the following bibliography is to provide the general reader, and especially the teacher of history, with a guide to the most useful literature on the subject. It, therefore, makes no pretense to be exhaustive. The shortness of time available to the compiler has made it difficult for him personally to examine absolutely all the very latest works on recent events. Hence he begs for lenient judgment of his shortcomings, should some excellent article or monograph have escaped his notice.

General Works

HAZEN, C. D. Europe Since 1815. (Holt, 1910.) By far the best one volume account of nineteenth century Europe which brings the narrative up to date.
THE CAMBRIDGE MODERN HISTORY. Vol. XII. The Latest Age. (Macmillan, 1910.) A good book devoted to the period since 1870. There is a chapter or more dealing with each of the great powers and groups of powers.

Germany

GENERAL ACCOUNTS

COLLIER, PRICE. Germany and the Germans from an American Point of View. (Scribner, 1913.) A very clever description of modern Germany which helps much to understand the German point of view. Rather too long to be of most value.
TOWER, CHARLES. Germany of To-day. A good brief description.

GOVERNMENT AND POLITICS

OGG, F. A. The Governments of Europe. (Macmillan, 1913.) 193-281.
DAWSON, W. H. The Evolution of Modern Germany. (Scribner, 1908.) 424-466.
VON BULOW, PRINCE BERNHARD. Imperial Germany. (Dodd, Mead & Co., 1914.) 127-201.

THE SOCIAL DEMOCRATIC PARTY AND ITS PROSPECTS

ORTH, SAMUEL P. Socialism and Democracy in Europe. (Holt, 1913.) 146-206.
BARKER, J. ELLIS. Modern Germany. (Dutton, 1907.) 287-328.
VON BULOW. Imperial Germany. 202-247.
THE GERMAN REICHSTAG ELECTION OF 1912. In Contemporary Review, Vol. 101. 165-176. Explains the great gains made by the party in the election of 1912.

SOCIAL REFORM AND STATE SOCIALISM

It should be noted that Germany was the first great State to provide old-age pensions, compulsory accident insurance, etc., and otherwise provide for the welfare of her manual laboring population.
ROBERTS, ELMER. Monarchical Socialism in Germany. (Scribner, 1913.) 1-143.
DAWSON, Evolution of Modern Germany. 148-169, 207-225.
BARKER. Modern Germany. 406-475.
DAWSON, W. H. German Workingmen's Insurance. In Contemporary Review, Vol. 101. 669-680.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF GERMAN INDUSTRY AND COMMERCE

DAWSON, W. H. The Evolution of Modern Germany. (Scribner, 1908.) 1-105, 170-206, 226-254.

HEFFERICH, KARL. Germany's Economic Progress and National Wealth, 1888-1913. (New York, 1914. The Germanistic Society of America, 419 West 117th Street.)
VON BULOW. Imperial Germany. 248-289.
BARKER. Modern Germany. 476-520, 361-405.

GERMAN COLONIAL EXPANSION. WHY GERMANY WANTS COLONIES

BARKER, J. ELLIS. Modern Germany. 12-123.
ELTZBACHER, O. The Progress of Germany and of Greater Germany. In Contemporary Review, Vol. 88. 203-220.
VON BERNHARDI, GENERAL FRIEDRICH. Germany and the Next War. (Translated by Allen H. Powles.) (London: Edwin Arnold, 1914.) Pp. 72-114.

PROBLEM OF THE SLAVS IN GERMANY

DAWSON. Evolution of Modern Germany. 467-499.
VON BULOW. Imperial Germany. 290-326.

France

GENERAL ACCOUNTS

BERRY, W. GRINTON. France Since Waterloo. (Scribner, 1909.) A sketchy but interesting historical account.
GUERARD, ALBERT LEON. French Civilization in the Nineteenth Century. An Historical Introduction. (The Century Co., 1914.) An excellent interpretative survey.
VIZETELLY, ERNEST ALFRED. Republican France, 1870-1912. Her Presidents, Statesmen, Policy, Vicissitudes and Social Life. (Boston: Small, Maynard & Co., 1912.)
BRACQ, JEAN C. France Under the Republic. (Scribner, 1910.) A very optimistic survey of the progress made in every line by France since 1870.
GEORGE, W. L. France in the Twentieth Century. (John Lane Co., 1909.) A moderate description of the progress of France in recent years, with some attention to history.
WENDELL, BARRETT. The France of To-day. (Scribner, 1907.) A brilliant description of French institutions, customs and habits of thought.

GOVERNMENT AND POLITICS

OGG, F. A. The Governments of Europe. 289-351.
GEORGE, W. L. France in the Twentieth Century. 79-122.

RELIGIOUS PROBLEMS OF FRANCE. THE SEPARATION OF CHURCH AND STATE

GUERLAC. Church and State in France. In Political Science Quarterly, Vol. 23. 259-296.
GEORGE. France in the Twentieth Century. 123-151, 264-288.
BRACQ. France Under the Republic. 252-332, 74-90, 212-251, 174-189.
GALTON. Church and State in France. 201-268.
WENDELL. France of To-day. 239-291.
LILLEY, A. L. The Religion of the Frenchman. In Contemporary Review, Vol. 102. 183-192.

THE GROWTH OF SOCIALISM IN FRANCE

ORTH, S. P. Socialism and Democracy in Europe. 75-117.
GEORGE. France in the Twentieth Century. 152-199.
BRACQ. France Under the Republic. 136-173.

THE RESOURCES OF FRANCE. ITS PROBLEMS AND ITS FUTURE. (As seen in July, 1914.)

BRACQ. France Under the Republic. 30-90, 136-155, 190-211.
GEORGE. France in the Twentieth Century. 243-263, 305-364.
BROOKS, SIDNEY. France and the Republic. In Fortnightly Review, Vol. 92. 504-516.
NORTH AMERICAN REVIEW. November, 1910. Pp. 645-656.

ELTZBACHER, O. The Agricultural Prosperity of France. In *Contemporary Review*, 1905, Vol. 88. 729-751.

MILLET, PHILIPPE. France and Her Algerian Problem. In *The Nineteenth Century*, Vol. 73. 729-740. Author asserts that France does not treat the Algerian natives fairly, and must improve if she is not to have trouble.

FAGUET, EMILE. The Cult of Incompetence. (Translated by B. Barstow.) (John Murray, London, 1911.) This is an example of the pessimism about the future of France which has been common in the past twenty-five years.

CHATTERTON-HALL, GEORGES. The Reawakening of France. In *The Nineteenth Century*, July, 1913, Vol. 74. 11-37. Optimistic reawakening of patriotism and confidence in France.

GARNER, J. W. Cabinet Government in France. In *American Political Science Review*, Vol. 8. 353-374. Optimistic.

WEYL, WALTER E. Depopulation in France. In *North American Review*, Vol. 195. 343-355.

Great Britain

GENERAL SURVEY

CROSS, ARTHUR LYON. A History of England and Greater Britain. 983-1089.

THE OVERSEAS EMPIRE

HAZEN. Europe Since 1815. 518-563.

CHEYNEY. Short History of England. 666-678.

WEGENER, GEORG. A German's Impressions of India. In *The Nineteenth Century*, Vol. 73. 960-977. A remarkably clear and illuminating statement of what England has done in India and how she did it.

PARKER, GILBERT. The Welding of the Empire. In *Fortnightly Review*, Vol. 94. 409-423. Statement of what has been done recently to weld the British Empire together more firmly.

LOW, SIDNEY. The Problem of an Imperial Executive. In *The Nineteenth Century*, Vol. 74. 419-437. Discussion of a central cabinet for the whole empire.

SHEPARD, W. J. The Constitutional Union of South Africa. In *American Political Science Review*, Vol. 3. 385-394, 552.

SHEPARD, W. J. The Indian Councils Act. In *American Political Science Review*, Vol. 3. 552-556.

RECENT SOCIAL WELFARE LEGISLATION AND STEPS TOWARD DEMOCRACY

HAYES, CARLTON. British Social Politics. (Ginn, 1913.) A very useful collection of the laws and the important speeches made while they were being debated in Parliament. Each law is preceded by a brief historical introduction.

ALDEN, PERCY. Democratic England. (Macmillan, 1912.) A description of some recent legislation.

THE BRITISH OLD AGE PENSIONS ACT. In *American Political Science Review*, February, 1909. Pp. 68-73.

THE NATIONAL INSURANCE ACT OF 1912. In *North American Review*, Vol. 195, pp. 108 ff., and *American Political Science Review*, Vol. VI, 229-234.

THE PROBLEM OF HOME RULE FOR IRELAND

DUBOIS, L. PAUL. Contemporary Ireland. (The Baker & Taylor Co., 1908.) 1-217.

NORTH AMERICAN REVIEW. Vol. 195. 788-802. Vol. 190. 524-534.

BROOKS, SIDNEY. The New Ireland. This is a series of articles in the *North American Review*, 1909-1910, beginning Vol. 191. Pp. 259 ff.

THE HOME RULE BILL OF 1912. See *The Britannica Year-Book*, 1913. (The Encyclopedia Britannica Co.) Pp. 506-518.

THE PROBLEM OF ULSTER. By Sidney Brooks. In *North American Review*, Vol. 198. 617-629.

HOME RULE ECONOMICS. In *Edinburgh Review*, Vol. 216. 216-234.

LATHBURY, D. C. Exclusion the Only Compromise. In *The Nineteenth Century*, Vol. 76. 1-12. Urges that the

Province of Ulster must be excluded from the new self-governed Ireland.

Various aspects of the Home Rule Question in 1914 are discussed in *Edinburgh Review*, Vol. 219, 481-502; *Quarterly Review*, Vol. 220. 266-290, 570-590; *Review of Reviews*, August, 1914, pp. 155-156, and the current numbers of other standard reviews and weeklies.

Italy

KING, BOLTON, and OKEY, THOMAS. Italy To-day. (J. Nisbet & Co., 1908.) The best general account.

OKEY, THOMAS. The General Elections in Italy, 1913. In *Contemporary Review*, Vol. 104. 773-783. See, also, E. J. Dillon's comments on the same in *Contemporary Review*, Vol. 104. 866-877.

THOROLD, ALGAR. The Expansion of Italy. In *Edinburgh Review*, Vol. 220. 60-78. A good survey of recent progress.

VILLARI, LUIGI. Italy a Year After the Libyan War. In *Fortnightly Review*, Vol. 94. 932-943. An optimistic survey of conditions.

MCCLELLAN, GEORGE B. Syndicalism and the General Strike in Italy. In *Atlantic Monthly*, Vol. 114. 294-301.

MCCLELLAN, GEORGE B. Italy's Position. In *Atlantic Monthly*, Vol. 114. (October, 1914.) 556-565. An excellent estimate of the strength of modern Italy and an explanation of why she remains neutral in the European War.

Russia

BARING, MAURICE. The Russian People. (Methuen, London, 1911.)

WILLIAMS, HAROLD WHITMORE. Russia of the Russians. (Scribner.)

SKRINE, The Expansion of Russia.

MORFILL, History of Russia.

DOUGLAS, Europe and the Far East.

WILL RUSSIA "MAKE GOOD?" In *North American Review*, Vol. 200. 507-511. The anonymous writer believes that Russia will carry out her promises to the Poles, Finns and Jews.

WHITFORD, V. Russia, Finland and Scandinavia. In *Contemporary Review*, Vol. 102. 211-220. Strongly anti-Russian in tone.

Austria-Hungary

STEED, HENRY WICKHAM. The Hapsburg Monarchy. (London: Constable & Co., second edition, 1914.) A remarkably good description of the dual monarchy, its peoples and its policies.

BOULGER, DEMETRIUS C. The Emperor Who Made the War. In *North American Review*, Vol. 200. 353-368. An historical survey of Austria-Hungary under Franz Josef. Very favorable to the aged Emperor.

THE PROBLEM OF AUSTRIA-HUNGARY. (By Politicus.) In *Fortnightly Review*, Vol. 93. 1047-1062. Good account of the racial dissensions in the dual monarchy and their effects.

BROOKS, SIDNEY. The Future of Austria-Hungary. In *North American Review*, August, 1914, pp. 194-202. The races of Austria-Hungary.

AUSTRIA'S CIVILIZING MISSION. (By an Austrian Diplomat.) In *The World's Work*, September, 1913, pp. 103-106. Very favorable to Austria. Lauds her introduction of modern civilization into Bosnia and Herzegovina since 1878.

OZANNE, J. W. Some Problems of Government in Europe and Asia. I. Austria-Hungary. In *The Nineteenth Century*, Vol. 73. 1131-1147. How racial diversity complicates the problems of government in the dual monarchy.

SETON-WATSON, R. W. New Phases of the Balkan Question. In *Contemporary Review*, Vol. 104. 322-330. An arraignment of Austrian diplomacy in the Balkans and of Austrian home policy toward the South Slavs. Favorable to Servia. The same line of argument is followed by Dr. E. J. Dillon in *Contemporary Review*, Vol. 103. 865-874. He says if the South Slavs had had good treat-

ment from Austria, and especially Hungary, there is no reason why they should not be as loyal to Austria-Hungary as the Italian or French-speaking Swiss are to Switzerland.

GRIBBLE, FRANCIS. *Servia Irredenta*. In *Edinburgh Review*, Vol. 220 (July, 1914). 41-59. An excellent survey of the Slav problem in Austria-Hungary. Blames the German and Magyar methods of administration for much of Serb hatred of Austria. They are efficient, but not sympathetic or tactful.

The Balkan States

GENERAL HISTORICAL ACCOUNTS

THE BALKAN QUESTION. *The Present Condition of the Balkans and of European Responsibilities*. (Edited by Luigi Villari.) (Dutton, 1905.) Contains some good chapters, but is too long and not up-to-date.

MILLER, WILLIAM. *The Balkans*. (Putnam, 1896. *Story of the Nations Series*.) A good brief historical account, though rather out-of-date.

PRINCE LAZAROVICH-HREBELIANOVICH. *The Orient Question To-day and To-morrow*. (New York: Duffield & Co., 1913.) Interesting, but rather superficial and strongly partial to Servia.

THE BALKAN WARS OF 1912-1913

SCHURMAN, JACOB GOULD. *The Balkan Wars, 1912-1913*. (Princeton University Press, 1914.) The best brief account of the wars. Devotes little space to purely military history, but gives the main facts very clearly and fairly.

SCHMITT, BERNADOTTE E. *The Balkan Revolution*. (Western Reserve University Bulletin, Vol. XVII, No. 3.)

USHER, R. G. *The Balkan Crisis*. In *Atlantic Monthly*, Vol. 111. 128-136.

SLOANE, W. M. *The Balkans: A Laboratory of History*. (Eaton & Mains.)

CAUSES OF THE WARS

DILLON, E. J. *Foreign Affairs*. In *Contemporary Review*, Vol. 102. 715-736.

FORTNIGHTLY REVIEW. Vol. 92, 813-825; Vol. 93, 430-439.

QUARTERLY REVIEW. Vol. 218, 278-298.

STRATEGY OF THE WAR

THE STRATEGY OF THE BALKAN WAR. In *Quarterly Review*, Vol. 218. 255-277. (January, 1913.)

DILLON, E. J. In *Contemporary Review*, Vol. 104. 258-280.

SIGNIFICANCE AND RESULTS OF THE BALKAN WARS

O'NEILL, AENEAS. *The Balkan Outlook as Seen from Vienna*. In *The Nineteenth Century*, Vol. 74. 872-887. Results from the Austrian point of view.

DILLON, E. J. *Foreign Affairs*. In *Contemporary Review*, Vol. 106. 109-128. Vol. 103. 565-584. Vol. 106. 262-280.

WAECHTER, MAX. *The Principal Lesson of the Balkan Wars*. In *The Nineteenth Century*, Vol. 76. 59-75. (July, 1914.) Declares that a federation of European states must be formed if peace is to be maintained.

LAWTON, LANCELOT. *Errors and Miscalculations of German Diplomacy*. In *Fortnightly Review*, Vol. 96. 431-444. How the Balkan Wars complicated the problems of German diplomacy.

BARKER, J. E. *The Changing of the Balance of Power*. In *The Nineteenth Century*, Vol. 73. 1193-1211.

INDIVIDUAL STATES OF THE BALKANS

ELIOT, SIR CHARLES. *Turkey in Europe*. (London: Edwin Arnold, 1908.) Describes for the most part the conditions of 1893-1898. The book was revised somewhat in 1907, but not extensively.

PEARS, EDWIN. *Turkey, Present and Future*. In *Contemporary Review*, Vol. 103. 761-773.

STODDARD, T. LATHROP. *Turkey and the Great War*. In *North American Review*, Vol. 200. 494-507. Shows the strength of the Ottoman Turks at the present, and asserts that Turkey is no longer the "Sick Man of the East."

BATTINE, CECIL. *Bulgaria and Roumania*. In *Fortnightly Review*, Vol. 94. 699-707. Interesting narrative account of relations between the two powers.

VIVIAN, HERBERT. *After the War*. In *Fortnightly Review*, Vol. 93. 312-321. Explanation of Roumania's policy in the war. Very favorable to Roumania.

ROUMANIA AND HER NEW TERRITORIES. (By a Bulgarian.) In *Contemporary Review*, Vol. 106. 20-25. A bitter attack on Roumania.

WALLIS, H. M. *Bulgaria and Her Traducers*. In *The Nineteenth Century*, Vol. 74. 1342-1356. A justification of Bulgaria and her policies.

MONROE, W. S. *Bulgaria and Her People*. (The Page Co., Boston.)

CASSAVETI, D. J. *Hellas and the Balkan Wars*. (London: T. Fisher Unwin, 1914.) Good narrative account of the war from the Greek point of view, and good description of conditions in modern Greece. Weak on the causes of the war and on diplomacy.

DELL, ANTHONY. *Some Recent Experiences in Albania*. In *The Nineteenth Century*, Vol. 76. (August, 1914.) 458-467. Interesting narrative and description.

DILLON, E. J. *The Albanian Tangle*. In *Fortnightly Review*, Vol. 96. 1-28. A detailed account, but rather too complicated.

International Politics

FULLERTON, WILLIAM MORTON. *Problems of Power. A Study of International Politics from Sadowa to Kirk-Kilisse*. (Scribner, 1913.) A good general account by a former correspondent of the London Times. Rather too philosophical in style. Assumes too much knowledge of the main facts, and therefore becomes a little tiresome.

RECENT GERMAN DIPLOMACY AND ITS OBJECTS

USHER, ROLAND G. *Pan-Germanism*. (Houghton, Mifflin, 1913.) A remarkably clever analysis of the Pan-German plans, their methods of propaganda, their efforts to carry out their plans thus far, plans for the future and probable outcome. The author speaks as one who knows absolutely, and some of his "ex cathedra" extreme statements have been severely criticized by the reviewers; the present war has borne out many of his prophecies.

VON BERNHARDI, GENERAL FRIEDRICH. *Germany and the Next War*. (London: Edwin Arnold, 1914; translated by A. H. Bowles.) An interesting sample of the kind of literature with which the Pan-Germanists (under the inspiration of the historian Treitschke) have flooded Germany and aroused enthusiasm for the furtherance of their plans. Summarized in the language of a reviewer in the Pall Mall Gazette, Von Bernhardi's gospel is:

- "1. The first duty of every citizen is to the State.
- "2. As war is not only an integral part of humanity, but the great civilizing influence of the world, it is the duty of every State and of every citizen of every State to be prepared for war.
- "3. England is stationary or retrogressive in the world's progress. Germany is the coming world power, who by her rise will elevate the world's standard of civilization, art and commerce. Germany's rise is, in fact, civilization's greatest asset.
- "4. Germany's inevitable expansion is being jealously watched by France and England, who are determined to thwart it by all or any means.
- "5. It is, therefore, the duty of Germany to utilize all and every means to protect her legitimate interest, and in this world, if might is not right, it is so alike as to be hardly distinguishable from it."

USHER, R. G. *Fundamental Aspects of the War*. In *North American Review*, Vol. 200. 520-527. An excellent brief article, showing how Pan-Germanism is at the root of the present war.

ELTZBACHER, O. *The Progress of Germany and of Greater Germany*. In *Contemporary Review*, Vol. 88. 203-220. (1905.) Shows how the increase of German population and the tendency of Germans easily to lose their nationality necessitates territorial expansion.

CRAMB, J. A. *Germany and England*. (London: John Murray, 1914.) An excellent exposition of the Pan-Germanist point of view against England, as taught by Treitschke and his followers.

DELBURCK, H. *Why Does Germany Build Warships?* In *Contemporary Review*, Vol. 96. 401-410. A good statement of the moderate German point of view. An attempt to conciliate the British public.

JOHNSTON, H. H. *Britain and Germany: German Views of an Anglo-German Understanding*. In *The Nineteenth Century*, Vol. 68. 978-987. Excellent exposition of the common German point of view—i.e., Great Britain blocks the way to German expansion, but does not hesitate to take anything she wants herself, though she does not need new territories as Germany does.

WHITMAN, SIDNEY. *It Had to Be. A Retrospect*. In *Fortnightly Review*, Vol. 96. 385-395. Asserts that the present war is largely the result of Emperor William's megalomania which has infected the German leaders.

BOULGER, DEMETRIUS C. *German Designs on the Congo*. In *Fortnightly Review*, Vol. 96. 487-498. Believes Germany does not want to annex Belgium, but does want the Belgian Congo lands in Central Africa.

VON BULOW, PRINCE BERNHARD. *Imperial Germany*. (Dodd, Mead & Co., 1914; translated by Marie A. Lewenz.) Pp. 1-123. A good summary of Germany's foreign policies in the past twenty-five years. Moderate in tone, but always strives to justify German policies. Is not free from inaccurate statements, especially in regard to German policies toward France.

BARKER, J. ELLIS. *Modern Germany*. (Dutton, 1907.) Pp. 12-199. A good survey of German foreign policies with a British bias.

DAWSON, W. H. *The Evolution of Modern Germany*. Pp. 1-16 and chapters 17-20. Gives an excellent statement of the modern spirit in Germany—what he calls, the triumph of materialism and the growth of the cult of force. This changed spirit of the new Germany is undoubtedly responsible for the growth of Pan-Germanism.

BRITISH DIPLOMACY IN RECENT YEARS

GARVIN, J. L. *Imperial and Foreign Affairs. King Edward and His Reign*. In *Fortnightly Review*, Vol. 87. 987-1005. A resume of King Edward's work in diplomacy.

SIR EDWARD GREY'S STEWARDSHIP. (By Diplomaticus.) In *Fortnightly Review*, Vol. 90. 963-978. A good review of foreign policy since Sir Edward Grey has been Foreign Secretary.

BARCLAY, SIR THOMAS. *Thirty Years—Anglo-French Reminiscences (1876-1906)*. (Houghton, Mifflin, 1914.) Extremely interesting memoirs by the man who, as British Ambassador to France, had most to do with making the Franco-British Entente Cordiale.

JERROLD, LAWRENCE. French "Patriots" and English "Liberals." In *Fortnightly Review*, Vol. 91. 226-234. A justification of the Franco-British Entente for both England and France. Summary account of how it was made.

BRITISH POLICY IN THE NEAR EAST. In *Quarterly Review*, Vol. 218. (April, 1913.) 565-586.

LOW, SIDNEY. *An Anglo-French Alliance*. In *Fortnightly Review*, Vol. 90. 999-1013. Argues against any formal alliance with France.

CHERADAME, ANDRE. *The Strength and Weakness of the Triple Entente*. In *Quarterly Review*, Vol. 215. 244-262. Good criticism.

FRENCH DIPLOMACY IN RECENT YEARS

MAXEY. *Alliances With and Against France*. In *Forum*, Vol. 42. 344-352. An excellent brief account, though not quite up-to-date.

TARDIEU, ANDRE. *France and the Alliances*. (Macmillan, 1908.) A rather detailed account from the French point of view.

TARDIEU, ANDRE. *Republic and Monarchy. Fifteen Years of French Diplomacy*. In *North American Review*, Vol. 187. 533-542.

ANGLO-GERMAN RELATIONS IN RECENT YEARS

ELTZBACHER, O. *The Anti-British Movement in Germany*. In *The Nineteenth Century*, Vol. 52. 190-200. (August, 1902.) Excellent survey of causes and results.

ANGLO-GERMAN RELATIONS. In *Edinburgh Review*, Vol. 210. (1909.) Pp. 447-471. Sane explanation and good narrative account.

BRAILSFORD, H. N. *Germany and the Balance of Power*. In *Contemporary Review*, Vol. 102. 18-26. Shows the Complexity of the issues between France, Germany and Great Britain.

JOHNSTON, H. H. *African and Eastern Railway Schemes*. In *The Nineteenth Century*, Vol. 72. 558-569. An excellent account with maps of the regions in question.

BLATCHFORD, ROBERT. *The War That Was Foretold: Germany and England*. (Reprinted from the *Daily Mail*.) A number of letters in which the author foretold the war in 1909, and urged England to prepare.

WAECHTER, MAX. *England, Germany and the Peace of Europe*. In *Fortnightly Review*, Vol. 93. 829-841. A plea for peace and settlement by a German who urges that a prosperous Germany is to the advantage of England.

LORD LAMINGTON. *An Anglo-German Entente*. In *The Nineteenth Century*, Vol. 67. (1910.) 487-491. Advocates an entente with Germany. Asks why England should back a "decadent" power like France.

SCHIEMANN, TH. *The United States and the War Cloud in Europe*. In *McClure's Magazine*, Vol. 35. (June, 1910.) 222-226. Suggests a combination of England, Germany and the United States to keep the world's peace. Gives the causes of Anglo-German rivalry from the German point of view.

POLLOCK, A. W. A. *An Ideal Alliance*. In *The Nineteenth Century*, Vol. 76. 51-58. Argues against a combination of England, Germany and the United States.

RECENT CHANGES IN THE BALANCE OF POWER IN EUROPE

COLQUHOUN, ARCHIBALD R. *The New Balance of Power in Europe*. In *North American Review*, Vol. 191. 18-28. Clear analysis of the European situation in 1910. Declares that England must keep up her big navy if peace is to be maintained.

GREAT BRITAIN AND EUROPE. In *Edinburgh Review*, Vol. 215. (January, 1912.) 243-262. Survey of the situation and of the very significant events of 1911.

MOREL, E. D. *The Recent Franco-German Crisis*. In *The Nineteenth Century*, Vol. 72. (July, 1912.) 32-43. Asserts that the Germans were not all wrong in their coup of 1911.

BARKER, J. ELLIS. *The Changing of the Balance of Power*. In *The Nineteenth Century*, Vol. 73. 1193-1211. Reasons for the great military increases in Europe during 1913. Excellent analysis of how the Balkan Wars of 1912-1913 injured Germany.

THE DIPLOMACY OF AUSTRIA-HUNGARY IN RECENT YEARS

SETON-WATSON, R. W. *Austria-Hungary as a Balkan Power*. In *Contemporary Review*, Vol. 102. 801-806. A Survey of Austrian diplomacy favorable to that power.

AUSTRIA, DISTURBER OF THE PEACE. (By Fabricius.) In *Fortnightly Review*, Vol. 93. (1913.) 249-264. Diplomatic aims of Austria clearly stated, but with a bias against Austria. Foretells a war of Austria against Slavdom.

LUTZOW, HENRY. *Is Austria Really the Disturber?* In *Fortnightly Review*, Vol. 93. 598-602. Austrian policy favorably summarized. An answer to the preceding article.

THE BALKANS. *The Greater Serbia Idea, etc.* In *the World's Work*, September, 1914. Pp. 129-131.

DILLON, E. J. *Foreign Affairs*. In *the Contemporary Review*, Vol. 103. 865-874. Discusses Austrian policy during the war of 1912-1913, and criticizes Austrian policy toward her Slav subjects.

BARKER, J. ELLIS. *The Murder of the Archduke—The Cause and the Consequences*. In *Fortnightly Review*, Vol. 96. 224-241. An admirable statement of the

policies of the murdered Archduke and the situation of Austria before the outbreak of the war.

SETON-WATSON, R. W. The Archduke Francis Ferdinand. In *Contemporary Review*, Vol. 106. 165-174. Favorable estimate of the man. Asserts that Servia as a whole is not really to blame for the murder, but rather the hostility of Germans and Magyars to the Austrian Serbs.

MILITARISM—THE ARMIES AND NAVIES, THEIR COMPARATIVE STRENGTH, THEIR COST, AND THE RESULTS OF THE ARMED PEACE

HURD, ARCHIBALD, AND CASTLE, HENRY. *German Sea Power: Its Rise, Progress and Economic Basis.* (London: Murray, 1913.) An excellent account with comparative tables.

ROBERTS, E. Monarchical Socialism in Germany. Pp. 153-167. The growth of the German navy and why it was built.

BARKER, J. E. Modern Germany. Pp. 227-247. The German Navy League and the navy.

SEA AND AIR COMMAND. Germany's New Policy. (By Ex-Editor.) In *Fortnightly Review*, Vol. 93. 868-880.

HURD, ARCHIBALD. How England Prepared for War. In *Fortnightly Review*, Vol. 96. 406-420. History of British naval development in recent years.

HURD, A. The Dominions and the Command of the Sea. In *Fortnightly Review*, Vol. 96. 242-254. An appeal for more battleships. An example of the appeals that have filled certain of the English reviews during the past few years.

PONSONBY, A. Foreign Policy and the Navy. In *Contemporary Review*, Vol. 102. 305-310. A plea against the great increase of armaments.

THE NAVY AND THE FUTURE. In *Edinburgh Review*, Vol. 219. (April, 1914.) 448-468.

THE BALANCE OF POWER IN EUROPE. Germany's Decline. (By Ex-Editor.) In *Fortnightly Review*, Vol. 94. 434-447. Showing increase of the British navy. See also Vol. 94. 1057-1073.

HUIDEKOPER, FREDERICK L. The Armies of Europe. In *World's Work*, September, 1914. Pp. 22-49. The Navies of Europe. Pp. 53-67.

BARKER, J. E. The Armament Race and Its Latest Developments. In *Fortnightly Review*, Vol. 93. 654-668. Comparison of the great European armies and their increases.

THE TIMES HISTORY OF THE WAR. Part II. Pp. 41-80. The Navies of Europe. Part III. Pp. 81-120. The French and the Belgian Armies. Part IV. The British Army. Part I. Pp. 27-40. The German Army.

THE KAISER AND THE "MAILED FIST." In *World's Work*, September, 1914. Pp. 68-71. A brief historical summary of how Prussian and German militarism has succeeded up to now.

STODDARD, T. L. How Europe's Armies Take the Field. In *Review of Reviews*, September, 1914. Pp. 309-321.

THE MILITARY CONSPIRACY. In *Fortnightly Review*, Vol. 93. 640-653. Denunciation of the demand for compulsory military service in England.

CRAMMOND, EDGAR. Financial Preparation for War. In *the Nineteenth Century*, Vol. 74. 924-943. Excellent. Comparative statistics given.

GERMAN IMPERIAL FINANCE. (April, 1909.) In *Edinburgh Review*, Vol. 209. 269-289.

DICKINSON, W. H. The War and After. In *Contemporary Review*, Vol. 106. 329-333. Shows that militarism was the fundamental cause of the war.

Immediate Causes of the War

THE DIPLOMATIC CORRESPONDENCE

CORRESPONDENCE RESPECTING THE EUROPEAN CRISIS. Presented to Both Houses of Parliament by Command of His Majesty, August, 1914. (Miscellaneous, No. 6.) [Cd. 7467.] This is the so-called British "White Paper," giving in full the letters (or, rather, telegrams) that passed between the various British ambassadors and the Foreign Office in London from July 20, 1914, to August 4, 1914. The messages are given without comment or any attempt to edit them into a justification of British policy.

DENKSCHRIFT UND AKTENSTÜCKE ZUM KRIEGSAUSBRUCH. This was published in English translation in the *New York Times*, August 23-24, 1914, and was reprinted in a separate pamphlet with the British White Paper, entitled "Why England and Germany Went to War." The German statement is a narrative substantiated by selected documents, but the complete correspondence is not given.

RUSSIA'S "ORANGE PAPER." In the *New York Times*, September 27, 1914, Section 7, pp. 1-2. This is a collection of 79 documents, comprising the correspondence of the Russian diplomats and Foreign Office from July 23 to August 6, 1914. No comment is made and no attempt to work them up into a connected narrative. This is the official Russian statement of why Russia went to war.

OFFICIAL DOCUMENTS BEARING UPON THE EUROPEAN WAR. I. The Austro-Hungarian Note to Servia. II. The Servian Reply. III. The British White Paper. IV. The German White Book. Reprinted through the courtesy of the *New York Times* as No. 83 of the publications of the American Association of International Conciliation, 407 West 117th Street, New York City. This association distributes its publications gratis to those who ask, as long as the supply lasts.

USHER, R. G. The Reasons Behind the War. In *Atlantic Monthly*, October, 1914. Pp. 444-451. An excellent survey of the causes. Shows how everything points to the conclusion that Germany and Austria decided August, 1914, was the best time to fight the war which they regarded as necessary (to carry out their plans).

HART, A. B. Why the Nations Fight. In *World's Work*, September, 1914. Pp. 9-15. Good resume of what each nation wants.

BRAILSFORD, H. N. The Empire of the East. In *Contemporary Review*, Vol. 106. 334-345. Good statement of the moderate point of view by an Englishman. Regards it primarily as a war between Teuton and Slav. Believes Germany and Austria blundered terribly in making a preventative war, which might have been avoided. Both Russia and Germany are responsible for the war, but he feels that Germany is most responsible.

THE TRUTH ABOUT GERMANY. Facts About the War. (By a number of eminent Germans.) (Baker & Taylor Co., 1914.) A plea for favorable judgment of German policy.

MÜNSTERBERG, HUGO. The War and America. (Appleton, 1914.) An attempt to influence American opinion to favor Germany. Full of inconsistencies. Makes statements boldly without giving sufficient proof. The author is clearly an exponent of the idea that "might is right" in international politics and of the modern German "cult of force."

FRANCKE, KUNO. The Kaiser and His People. In *Atlantic Monthly*, Vol. 114. 566-570. A eulogy of the Kaiser and Germany. The war is all the fault of France and England, according to the author.

DILLON, E. J. The Causes of the European War. In *Contemporary Review*, Vol. 106. (September, 1914.) Pp. 310-328. A clear analysis of the causes of the war based to a considerable extent on personal knowledge. Strongly British in point of view.

"EUROPE AT ARMAGEDDON." In *North American Review*, Vol. 200. 321-339. A strong arraignment of Germany and Austria-Hungary, especially of the latter, for making war on Servia.

THE CAUSES OF THE WAR. (By Politicus.) In *Fortnightly Review*, Vol. 96. 445-460. Excellent summary. Blames the Emperor and shows how the German diplomats miscalculated.

BARKER, J. E. The Ultimate Ruin of Germany. In *The Nineteenth Century*, Vol. 76. Pp. 525-551. Fiery article in which the author shows little fairness to Germany.

GUERARD, ALBERT LEON. France and the War of Revenge. In *Contemporary Review*, Vol. 106. 346-355. An excellent article written before the war was seriously thought of by laymen. Asserts that France nurses hostility to Germany because Germany always treats France as an inferior, and tries to bully her. Asserts that the French do not want war.

DUMBA, DR. CONSTANTIN THEODOR. Why Austria is at War with Russia. In *North American Review*, Vol. 200, 346-352. Statement of the Austrian case against Servia and Russia. Declares that Servia has all along been the tool of Russian Pan-Slavic agitation—i.e., the torpedo launched by Russia against Austria.

MARKOFF, A. Why Russia Has Gone to War. In *Contemporary Review*, Vol. 106, 356-365. Statement of the Russian case.

Additional New Books¹

SAROLEA, C. The Anglo-German Problem.

THE ANGLO-NIETZSCHIAN: WHY WE ARE AT WAR. (By Members of the Oxford Faculty of Modern History.) (H. Sotheran & Co., 43 Piccadilly, London, W.)

GRAVES, DR. ARMGARD KARL. The Secrets of the German War Office. (McBride, Nast & Co., New York.)

MORRIS, CHARLES. The Nations of Europe: The Causes and Issues of the Great War. (I. C. Winston Co., Philadelphia.)

WILE, FRED W. Men Around the Kaiser. (J. B. Lippincott Co.)

COMMUNICATION.

Editor THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE:

Will you give space to a brief notice and apology from me? On page 215 of the September number of *THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE*, under Text-Books in the bibliography of my article on "The Archaeological History of Rome After 450 B. C." there does not appear Botsford, G. W., "History of the Ancient World" (Macmillan, 1911).

This title in some way did not get from my manuscript to the printer's typewritten copy, and I have therefore made an omission for which I apologize to Professor Botsford. The titles of the text-books are in alphabetical order, and I have of course refrained from making any comments upon what I think to be their comparative value.

I meant to include, however, only those books which had all of Greek and Roman history in one cover, and I explain thus the fact that I purposely did not mention such good books as those of Abbott, Botsford, Morey, Shuckburg, and so on, which deal only with the history of Rome.

Yours truly,
R. V. D. MAGOFFIN.

Bulletin No. 10 of the publications of the North Carolina Historical Commission contains addresses at the unveiling of the Memorial to the North Carolina Women of the Confederacy, together with a view of the Memorial. The monument was presented by the late Ashley Horne, but was the work of Augustus Lukeman, sculptor, and Henry Baker, architect.

WANTED.

SEPTEMBER, 1914, NUMBER OF THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE.

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¹ The compiler makes no attempt to criticize these books because he has been unable to procure them in time.

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Managing Editor, Albert E. McKinley, Philadelphia, Pa.
Business Manager, Charles S. McKinley, Philadelphia, Pa.
Publisher, McKinley Publishing Co., Philadelphia, Pa.
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Known bondholders, mortgagees, and other security holders, holding 1 per cent. or more of total amount of bonds, mortgages, or other securities: None.

(Signed) ALBERT E. MCKINLEY.

Sworn to and subscribed before me this 29th day of September, 1914.

JULIA M. O'BRIEN,
Notary Public.

BOOK REVIEWS

EDITED BY PROFESSOR WAYLAND J. CHASE,
UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN.

ADAMS, JOHN QUINCY. *Writings Of.* Edited by W. C. Ford. Vol. III, 1801-1810. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1914. Pp. xxiv + 555. \$3.50.

The dominant interest in this volume is in its contributions to diplomatic history. Diplomatic problems, indeed, seem to have filled the writer's mind. On the Louisiana treaty he broke with the Federalists, on the Leopard-Chesapeake affair and the embargo, he definitely separated from them, to join, a little gradually, their opponents. From page 321 the interest lies in the Russian Mission. Here we find reference to Russian and United States claims on the northwestern coast of America, and more clear-cut and definite information as to the exact state of trade in northern Europe than is elsewhere available in print.

Of secondary interest are the contributions to politics. Although Adams was from 1803 to 1808 a member of the United States Senate, he shows no familiarity with politics outside of New England. On the other hand, some of the material published consists of notes of speeches, the text of resolutions, motions, and reports, that properly supplement the official records of Congress. A third main theme may be said to be education. From 1806 to his departure for Russia, he was Boylston lecturer on Rhetoric and Oratory at Harvard. It is not necessary to say that he took his duties seriously. His discussions of the position of a professor are still of interest. He strongly disapproved of Noah Webster's spelling and "vulgarisms," but did not despair of converting him by sending him some critical passages from his lectures: "For if he should profit by it, as a man of sense always may profit by friendly censure, it will be more useful to him and his work than any Russian dictionary or grammar" (p. 337), Webster having asked Adams to send him the latter. He refuses, with what seems unnecessary apology, to prepare a commencement oration for the son of a Mr. Smith, and he writes with sense and enlightenment on the education of his own sons left in America. A few letters on business and on law seem unimportant, and most of the prepared pieces relate themselves to one or the other of the heads mentioned. An exception is a speech prepared for the Senate, but probably never delivered, on an amendment to abolish the representation of slaves, and foreshadowing his later position on the question of slavery (pp. 87-100).

He is a much better letter writer than previously, and his letters to his mother show a geniality and tenderness which we do not associate with his later years. The range of his curiosity continues strictly limited to human nature, and, with the exception of one minute description of Russian protection against the cold, his letters are totally lacking in the variety which constitutes the charm of those of Franklin and Jefferson.

Some errors have crept into the text: on page 340, "reading" in the third line should be "needing;" on page 433, in the second line, a negative is needed.

The University of Wisconsin.

CARL RUSSELL FISH.

GUEST, GEORGE. *A Social History of England.* London: G. Bell and Sons, 1913. Pp. 209. 40 cents.

The scope of this little volume is better indicated in the prefatory note as a "connected outline of the Social and Industrial History of England." It is intended as part one of a concentric history course in three parts, the other parts to deal with constitutional history and with political,

military and imperial affairs. The course, as outlined, with part one, as issued, is intended primarily for use in English schools; the treatment is essentially elementary and adapted for use in the higher classes of elementary schools. The text covers little more of the special field under survey than is included in the typical American high school text-book in general English history, and the author's attempt to "trace briefly the gradual emancipation of the worker, from a state of slavery to his present position of power which gives him a share in the government of the country" scarcely fulfills one's expectations. In view of the recent emphasis upon modern history, one is surprised to find so little space assigned to the treatment of the last two centuries; they are given about thirty pages, or less than one-sixth of the volume. The limitations of the work the author doubtless consciously imposed upon himself, but they make his product less valuable to the American teacher and student. The narrative is, on the whole, simple and effective; the summaries of the chapters, appended in place of an index, are not without their advantages. The inexpensiveness of the work commends it to the teacher who is building up a collateral reading library upon limited funds.

The University of Illinois.

ARTHUR C. COLE.

INNES, ARTHUR D. *A Source Book of English History.* For the use of schools. Vol. II. Cambridge: The University Press, 1914. Pp. 282. \$1.35.

This work appears as further evidence of the growing demand, in England as in the United States, for the regular use of a source book to supplement the work on the narrative text. Though published in three volumes, the completed product will probably bulk but little larger than the more usual one volume works of other collectors of similar material. The matter contained in it is drawn from standard sources of undoubted excellence; there is, however, no very great variety of historical material presented, inasmuch as the selections are fairly long and made from a rather limited number of works. Indeed, over one-half of the selections in this volume were drawn from Clarendon's "History of the Great Rebellion," Cromwell's "Letters and Speeches," Pepys' "Diary," Burnet's "History of My Own Times," Horace Walpole's "Memoirs," or from the works of Swift and Burke. Many of these sources are accessible to high school students in other forms; this collection, however, renders a real service in making them more generally and more conveniently accessible.

In comparing this source book with similar collections by American writers, one wonders to what extent even so broad-minded an historical student as Mr. Innes, himself the author of an excellent little manual on English economic history, felt the necessity of making the appeal to his British audience by catering to the obsolete notion, as expressed by Mr. Freeman, that history is merely past politics. His present product, at any rate, keeps rather too well within the confines of political and constitutional history, and fails to include documents illustrative of the very significant developments of the eighteenth century. There is also insufficient material bearing at all directly on the religious situation in the seventeenth century, on early English activity in the field of colonization, or on the American Revolution. In the division of the material presented, one is, therefore, not surprised to find 169 pages assigned to the seventeenth century, while the period, 1702-1815, is covered in only 105 pages. The editorial work on this volume is of a high order. The explanatory notes preceding each chapter attempt to furnish biographical information regarding the authorities quoted; most of

the selections are also preceded by brief statements connecting the extracts with the narrative history of their periods. In material make-up, the excellent size of the type is to be commended as an advantage offset only by the highly glossed surface of the paper. Twenty-one illustrations accompany the volume, consisting of reproductions of authentic portraits and other prints and fac-similes of manuscripts and other documents. This work, intended as a supplementary text in the English schools, is scarcely adapted to such use in American high schools. It has, however, good claims to a place on the collateral reading shelves of a high school library.

ARTHUR C. COLE.

The University of Illinois.

CLODD, EDWARD. *The Childhood of the World*. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1914. Pp. 240. \$1.25.

This veteran anthropologist has prepared for the public a revision and enlargement of his book first published forty-two years ago, and translated during that time into many languages. It is easy to see why it has had such acceptance. It is a simply written and easily understood account of the origin of human things—man, his customs, his implements, the steps of his progress upwards from primitive beginnings—things everyone is interested in, told by one who is qualified to write about them. Adapted to young people of various ages, it is a good book for the school library, affording answers to the many who wonder and enquire about the what before recorded history, or the how and the why of mankind. Early practices and beliefs, the antiquity of the human race, its earliest wanderings, man's ways of satisfying his primitive wants, the development of primitive industry, of language, of writing, of counting and measuring, and of many other customs and practices, the rise of myth and religion, and the progress of enquiry about the nature of this earth—these are some of the principal topics treated. Twenty-six illustrations and a bibliography are supplied.

WAYLAND J. CHASE.

GIBBS, W. J. R. *Exercises and Problems in English History, 1485-1820. Chiefly from Original Sources*. Cambridge: The University Press, 1913. Pp. 174. 75 cents.

Here are 150 selections consecutively numbered and varying in length from a scant paragraph to three pages. To each is appended one or more questions, rarely more than three. Nothing but its number heads the selection, and so there is for most of them no external clue to their origin. Indeed, the introductory note tells us that the selections are presented in an order that is not chronological so as "to increase the efficacy of the scheme," which is "to present a type of exercise based on original sources which does not necessarily demand the essay form of answer, and which thereby reduces the amount of correction without sacrificing the worth of the problem." Many of the selections are long enough to afford basis for study, but there are many, too, that are as short as number 40, which, with its questions, is as follows:

Every meeting for radical reform was not merely a seditious attempt to undermine the constitution and government by bringing it into contempt, but it was an overt act of treasonable conspiracy against that constitution of Government, including the King as its head and bound by his coronation oath to maintain it.

1. Suggest occasions on which the above words were written or spoken.
2. What conclusions do you draw as to the author?
3. Were these views popular?

As to this and others like it, the suspicion arises that the problem degenerates into the puzzle or into guesswork, because the material is too scanty to afford sufficient basis for study.

WAYLAND J. CHASE.

CANFIELD, LEON HARDY. *The Early Persecutions of the Christians*. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1913. Pp. 215. \$1.50.

This book is a detailed study of the material, both ancient and modern, upon the persecutions of the Christians during the first two centuries after Christ. In Chapter I, it presents the various theories as to the legal basis of the action of the Roman state officials against the Christians. For the first century the author does not believe that there were any persecutions, excepting, possibly, in Asia Minor. The isolated actions against the Christians were the result of police suppression under the power of *coercitio*, that is, of taking measures to preserve order in the state and maintain its safety. In this theory the author follows Mommsen. In explaining the persecutions of the second century, he abandons Mommsen, and believes that the Christians were punished for their faith alone. In four following chapters he deals in detail with the evidence of persecution under Nero, under the Flavians, under Trajan and under Hadrian.

The second half of the book contains the most important primary sources, given both in the original language and in translation. These sources are arranged in chapters corresponding to the five chapters of the first part of the investigation.

The study is an excellent collection of the meagre evidence we have upon this subject, and a judicious discussion of the theories advanced by modern scholars. It adds little that is new to the literature of the subject. To secondary school teachers, its only value would be for those who have a special interest in the details of the persecutions of the first two centuries, and the question of the legal status of the Christians. Since the great persecutions occurred in the third century and the first decade of the fourth, it will be evident that the study really covers a narrow field, and is technical in its purpose and method.

W. L. WESTERMANN.

The University of Wisconsin.

NOTE.

The History Teachers' Association of South Dakota met at Sioux Falls on October 22. The following program was provided: "Reorganization of High School History Courses as Suggested by the N. E. A." by Edwin Ott, Sioux Falls High School; "Emphasis on Essentials in High School History Teaching," by Bruce McVay, Scotland City Schools; "History Methods in the Grades," by T. A. Hutton, Spearfish Normal School; "The Place of Local History in the Course of Study," by Miss Mildred Slater, Lead High School; "The Humorous Side of History," by Miss Rhoda Kirtland, Deadwood.

The officers of the association are as follows: C. Christphelsmeier, president, Vermillion; Miss Clara Vierling, vice-president, Sioux Falls; Edwin Ott, secretary, Sioux Falls.

Reports from the Historical Field

WALTER H. CUSHING, EDITOR.

Lantern slides of the great European war of 1914 are being prepared from time to time by Newton & Co., 37 Kings Street, Covent Garden, London, W. C. Up to the last reports, nearly 200 slides upon the war had been prepared.

Mr. R. D. W. Connor, secretary of the North Carolina Historical Commission, upon the request of the United States Commissioner of Education, is about to prepare a bulletin on the work of historical commissions, departments of archives and history, State historians, and similar agencies in the United States. A questionnaire, containing sixteen topics, has been sent to historical societies and institutions throughout the country. It is hoped that the organizations which have not received this inquiry, as well as those which have, will furnish the information requested. No work of this character has ever been published. A list of publications of American historical societies was published in the Report of the American Historical Association for 1905, but no attempt has been made to describe the general work of historical agencies. All workers in the field of history will welcome a comprehensive statement of this character.

A second edition of "Reference Studies in Mediaeval History," by Professor James Westfall Thompson, of the University of Chicago, has just come from the press. It is a substantial volume of 233 pages. An interesting and suggestive introduction treats of the general subject of teaching and studying mediaeval history. This is followed by specific references to secondary works upon 384 topics. The subjects for reference, of course, include all the usual topics of a political nature likely to be taken up in a course on mediaeval history. In addition to these, there are references on many out of the way topics, such as "The Church as a Landlord," "Heresy," "The Mediaeval Mania for Relics," "Sports and Pastimes," "Chivalry," "Gypsies," "The Jews in Germany," "The Rise of Vernacular Literature," "Miracle Plays," "Timurlane," and many others. The work closes with a Chronological Table of Emperors and Popes and a List of Important Dates and Events.

Professor Oliver Perry Chitwood, of the University of West Virginia, has issued a syllabus of Roman history for use in classes of that institution. The work contains a brief bibliography of Roman history and a detailed analysis of the subject matter of Roman history down to the close of the Imperial period, with abundant references to secondary source works on Roman history.

MISSOURI ASSOCIATION.

The Missouri Society of Teachers of History and Government will meet on Friday, November 13. The following program has been arranged:

1. "Missouri and History," (a) "The Development of Missouri History," Floyd C. Shoemaker, Columbia; (b) "Missouri History in the Schools," E. M. Violette, Kirksville.
2. "College Entrance Requirements and the High School Course in History," A. G. Capps, Lancaster.
3. "The Great War in Europe and Its Historical Setting," Jesse E. Wrench, Columbia.

Election of officers. Collection of papers by president for general secretary.

The officers of the Association are as follows: President, R. S. Douglass, Cape Girardeau; vice-president, G. W. Kirk, Charleston; secretary-treasurer, Eugene Fair, Kirksville.

KANSAS ASSOCIATION.

The announcement given below is interesting, not only because the meeting celebrates the opening of the new home of the Kansas State Historical Society, but also on account of the clear and logical arrangement of the material of the program:

ROUND TABLE OF THE KANSAS HISTORY TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

Place, Memorial Hall—Home of the Kansas State Historical Society, corner of Tenth and Jackson Streets.

Time, Friday, 2.00 P. M., November 13, 1914.

Prof. Ralph R. Price, Manhattan, President.

Prof. Pelagius Williams, Emporia, Vice-President.

Miss Mary G. Yarger, Atchison, Secretary-Treasurer.

LUNCHEON—All history teachers are urged to participate in the first annual luncheon of the Kansas history teachers at 12.00 o'clock noon, at the First Presbyterian Church, Harrison Street, between Eighth and Ninth.

RECEPTION—All history teachers will meet at Memorial Hall at 1.30, to meet Governor Hoch, and to get acquainted with each other.

PROGRAM—General Theme: "American History and Civics."

Motto: Practical, Helpful, Suggestive.

Rules: Begin promptly. State your thesis clearly. Quit. Each paper is limited strictly to the time indicated.

Each paper open to discussion at any time during the session.

1. Address, "Training for Citizenship," Hon. E. W. Hoch, (30 minutes.)

2. Symposium on the content of the history course:

A. "Just What European Background Should be Included in the High School American History Course," Arnold Lau, Wichita High School. (15 minutes.)

B. "What Religious Facts and Influences Must be Included in Order to Get a Correct View of American History?" Prof. A. M. Hyde, Washburn College, Topeka. (15 minutes.)

C. "Why Should We Now Give More Emphasis to the Social and Industrial Phases of History?" Prof. G. W. Trout, State Manual Training Normal School, Pittsburgh. (15 minutes.)

D. "Why Should We Teach Political and Constitutional History?" Prof. C. A. Dykstra, University of Kansas, Lawrence. (15 minutes.)

3. "Ten of the Best New Text-books on History and Civics," Elden V. James, Manhattan. (10 minutes.)

Additional suggestions and questions.

4. "Local History and the State Historical Society," Hon. William E. Connelley, Secretary of the Kansas State Historical Society, Topeka. (15 minutes.)

5. Report of the Committee on History in the elementary schools and the report of the Committee of Eight. Prof. Pelagius Williams, Emporia, chairman. (In this connection there will be a display of illustrative historical material for use in the grades.)

6. Business session.

The fall meeting of the Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland will be held at the College of the City of New York, on November 28. The subject for discussion will be "Measuring Results of History Teaching." This meeting will be held as part of the annual conferences of the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland.

A UNIQUE HISTORY CLUB.

The history teachers of Seattle, Washington, believe they have a club which is unique both in membership and purpose. Its membership includes men and women teaching all grades of history, university, high school and grammar school. From this composite organization, it is hoped there will result a better understanding on the part of the members of each group of what the other groups are doing in the same field as themselves, but under different conditions.

That the idea of the club is well taken appeared at the very first meeting. At this meeting a university teacher of history told the club what he had observed as the equipment in history of the high school students when they entered the freshman classes at the university. In the discussion that followed, the high school and university people found themselves hopelessly in disagreement. Finally it developed that the difference was simply the result of ignorance on the part of each group as to the purposes and standards of the other. Some one suggested that to get together would be more profitable than to quarrel, and following up the suggestion, a committee was appointed, representing both groups, and this committee was instructed to harmonize the apparently conflicting standards. This committee has made some progress in its work, and expects to be prepared to report to the club in the near future.

Soon the club expects to take up the case of the high school and grammar school teachers. Judging from past experience, it may be predicted that the result will be a joint committee on the articulation of high school and grammar school history.

NEW ENGLAND ASSOCIATION.

The annual meeting of the New England Association was held in Boston, on Friday and Saturday, October 23 and 24. The sessions of Friday afternoon and Saturday morning were held in the Massachusetts Historical Society building, the meeting of Friday evening in Jacob Sleeper Hall, Boston University. The subject for the session of Friday afternoon was "Community Civics." Mr. Clarence D. Kingsley, agent of the Massachusetts Board of Education, spoke on "The Place of Community Civics in High School Education." Principal F. W. Carrier, of the Wilmington High School, described his method of teaching the subject. A general discussion followed. An informal subscription dinner at the Copley Square Hotel, preceded the evening session, to which a special invitation had been extended to the New England members of the American Historical Association, of the American Political Science Association, and of the Massachusetts Historical Society. The conference on Friday evening was devoted to "Recent English History." Professor R. M. Johnston, of Harvard University, presided. The subject was discussed by Mr. George L. Fox, of the University School, New Haven; Doctor Charles Seymour, of Yale University; Doctor Mason W. Tyler, of Princeton University, and others.

The regular business meeting of the Association was held on Saturday morning. President Arthur I. Andrews, of Tufts College, in the chair. Professor Sidney B. Fay, of Smith College, was elected president for the following year. The secretary reported a large increase in membership, due to the activity of the special committee on membership, of which committee Doctor Jessie M. Law, of Springfield, was chairman. The subject for discussion on Saturday morning was, "To What Extent Do History Courses in School Prepare for History Courses in College?" To secure information on this subject from one source, a questionnaire had been prepared and sent to most of the New England

colleges for replies to be given by students in college. A report on the questionnaire was made by Mr. Charles S. Moore, of Cambridge. The subject was discussed by Doctor Harriet E. Tuell, of Somerville, who spoke from the standpoint of the school; Professor H. D. Foster, of Dartmouth, who spoke from the college point of view, and others.

The guests of the Association at the luncheon which followed were Doctor Arthur K. Fairbanks, of the Museum of Fine Arts, Boston, and Professor Roscoe S. Pound, of the Harvard Law School, who spoke on "The Breakdown of Historical Jurisprudence."

NOTES.

The Committee on Methods in the New England Association has added to its number, and is now busily at work in arranging for the coming winter. Miss Mabel Hill, of Dana Hall School, Wellesley, is chairman of the committee. To obtain data the committee has used the following questionnaire:

QUESTIONNAIRE.

1. Do you feel there is any new attitude of mind with the great majority of teachers in regard to the approach to history?

2. Have the constructive criticisms given before conventions and associations by Commissioner Dr. David Snedden proved helpful in reconstructing the teaching of history, or have they proved simply stimulating to thought about the subject either for or against the reorganization of what he calls our high school social studies?

3. Are high school teachers still following closely the published program prepared by the Committee on History Teaching in the New England History Teachers' Association, which was organized under the advice of the American Historical Association?

4. Are the elementary teachers and the practice teachers of normal schools following to any extent the Report of the Committee of Eight, published under the authority of the American Historical Association?

5. Are the rural school teachers in Massachusetts following the outlines published by the Massachusetts State Board of Education? (This report was sent out two years ago.)

6. Have history teachers with their pupils made use as yet to any extent of offers from museums and art exhibits?

7. Are pictures and relics increasing as data to study in the class-room? (We mean actually to study, not to look at.)

8. Is the correlation of history with geography and literature growing in any marked degree? Should such a correlation be urged?

9. Does a study of Current Events belong to a history recitation or to a class in Current Events by itself?

10. Would it be wise to reorganize the study of history for rural schools and to reorganize history for city schools in such manner that the teaching of history will have a more vital interpretation of the environment in which the pupils live? Or would it be better to teach history for history's sake, leaving to the teacher the opportunity to make the personal application?

11. If it be true that the teaching of history in most high schools seems to have failed in its purpose, has the failure resulted from the conditions of the adolescent mind, or from the over-academic teaching of the college-bred teacher, or from the fact that our text-books lack that quality of style in presenting the subject-matter which otherwise ought to thrill and appeal to boys and girls of the ages from fifteen to eighteen?

12. Does the committee believe it is worth while to investigate this whole subject and make a report upon it at the spring meeting of the New England History Teachers' Association a year from this time?

PROCEEDINGS OF THE HISTORY SECTION OF THE CALIFORNIA TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION, BERKELEY, CALIFORNIA, JUNE 30-31, 1914.

The History Section of the California Teachers' Association met in accordance with the program, and, in the absence of the presiding officer, was called to order by Dr. Thomas Maitland Marshall, who acted as chairman pro tem. He appointed Tom P. Martin to act as secretary, in the absence of Miss Kretsinger, the secretary. Dr. Marshall then introduced Professor Franz Boas, of Columbia University.

Professor Boas preferred to discuss "Anthropology as an Aid to the Teaching of History," rather than the "Training of Teachers in Anthropology," for no systematic attempt has yet been made to train high school teachers in that science. It is fundamental, however, that history teachers should be brought to realize that the importance of anthropology as an aid to the teaching of history is as great as that of geography. Anthropology furnishes the human background of history. European history, for example, cannot be understood without a knowledge of the movements of the earliest races. Those governments are known to have been constant and far-reaching in importance. The resulting confusion ultimately formed the source of modern conditions. Linguistic studies show the effects on languages. The use of wheat and barley practically all over Western Europe, when it could only have originated in Asia Minor, and the widespread use of domesticated animals show that a general transmigration and interchange of ideas prevailed in prehistoric times. The plow was known from Western Europe across to the Pacific Coast of Asia, and the wheel was used all over the Old World. Professor Boas then discussed the native races of North America at some length. But it is deemed inadvisable to give a further account of the address because of the imperfect notes at hand.

In the absence of the gentleman selected by the Program Committee to open the discussion on "The New University Entrance Requirements in American History and Government," Dr. Marshall stated the subject and explained its significance. He declared that there is a tendency among universities to break down old standards and allow the student more latitude in the election of subjects for entrance. It was pointed out that there is the danger that university officials not interested in history will allow its omission altogether. But history is absolutely necessary in the preparation for citizenship. Mr. W. J. Cooper, of the Berkeley High School, believes that a medium between the extremes of rigid university prescription and the allowance of easy combinations is desirable. The training in history is good enough to justify the university in requiring it. But a difficulty arises in determining the scope of the requirement, for State universities are not only required to educate American citizens, but also foreigners who may not expect to remain in the country. Clearly the university is justified in not requiring them to present United States history. To more deeply impress the importance of the study of American history upon the minds of the people, the requirement should be set by the State rather than by the university. Mr. Cooper's views met the approval of the assembly, and it was moved and carried that a committee be appointed to present the matter to the California Legislature.

Professor Carl Kelsey, University of Pennsylvania, addressed the section on "Social Science in the High School." Originally the term "Sociology" was applied to the science of history. It represented a reaction against the old conception of history. Nowadays it has become a dis-

tinct science dealing with social problems. Sociology is especially important as a study for high school teachers, because it gives the physical background of the school.

Following Professor Kelsey's address, Miss Florence Edith Barth, of the Benicia High School, read a paper on "The Spanish Background of the History of the Southwest." Miss Barth first called attention to the fact that most writers on American history have failed to appreciate the importance of the Spanish occupation of the Southwest. The cause, she alleged, is that until recently our foremost historians have been New Englanders, men who have studied the American nation almost entirely as a development of the English institutions and race as affected by conditions found in the thirteen colonies. The really American part of our history is to be studied in the advance of the American frontier. The social, political and economic evolutions occurring there were to a large extent conditioned by pre-American antecedents. For three centuries the Spaniards had made explorations and settlements in the Southwest; and Spanish institutions had become dominant. It is for this reason that certain proponents of western history insist that the history of the old Spanish Southwest be given a treatment analogous to that already given to the English East.

The last number on the program was a paper on "The Overland Trails to California" by Miss Mabelle Blanche Eppard, California School of Mechanical Arts, San Francisco. A brief account of the Anglo-American westward movement to 1840 and of the significance of the frontier in American history was given; and it was pointed out that the character of country and of climate west of the Great Bend of the Missouri was radically different from that hitherto encountered by the Americans. Nevertheless, explorers, traders and trappers had pushed onward into the west, northwest and southwest. A regular caravan trade had been established with Santa Fe, the depot for trains from far to the south and even from California, with which there was a considerable mule trade. Many Americans had become naturalized Mexican citizens, and were trapping along the waters of the Gila, the Colorado, and in what is now northern Mexico.

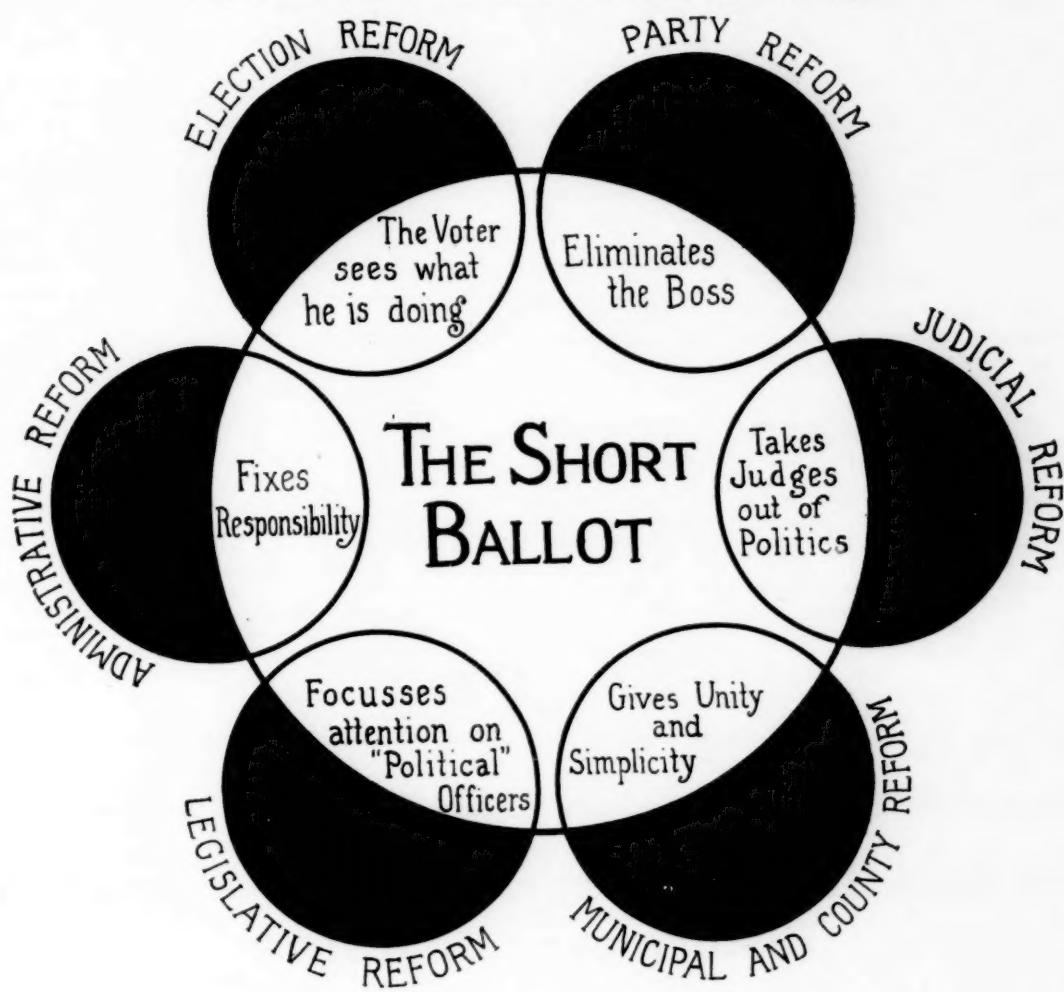
By 1840 the pressure on the frontier line of settlement, particularly at Independence, Missouri, had become too strong for further restraint. The dissatisfied class and those who wanted "elbow room" had lately increased in numbers because of the panic of 1837. Returning hunters from California sang the praises of that country, calling it a perfect paradise with wonderful opportunities for securing Mexican land grants. Mass meetings were held, and emigrant associations were formed. Fear of Mexican hostility and advices from Americans living in the vicinity of the San Francisco Bay led to the selection of the route through South Pass rather than the traders' trails in the southwest. Over this route most of the emigration from points north of Arkansas passed; and it was well known when the great rush came in 1849.

During the Mexican War, the American expeditionary forces crossing the southwest from Santa Fe and El Paso to California opened up new routes in addition to those already known. The most important of these was that opened for wagons by Cooke along the valley of the Santa Cruz River south of the Gila. After the war, in order to establish communications with the different parts of the Mexican Cession, several expeditions were sent out to make further explorations. These were continued for a number of years.

When the great gold rush came on, emigrants availed themselves of the trails through the southwest, as well as those which are now much better known in history.

AN INTERESTING GRAPHICAL ILLUSTRATION APPLIED TO POLITICAL SCIENCE.

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BOOKS ON HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT PUBLISHED IN THE UNITED STATES FROM AUGUST 29 TO SEPTEMBER 26, 1914.

LISTED BY CHARLES A. COULOMB, PH.D.

American History.

Brindley, John E. History of road legislation in Iowa. Cedar Rapids, Ia.: Torch Press. 422 pp. \$2.50 net.

Brindley, John E. History of taxation in Iowa. 2 vols. Cedar Rapids, Ia.: Torch Press. 493, 476 pp. \$5.50 net.

Clark, Dan. E. History of senatorial elections in Iowa. Cedar Rapids, Ia.: Torch Press. 331 pp. \$2.00 net.

Dellenbaugh, Fredk. S. Fremont and '49. N. Y.: Putnam. 547 pp. (19 pp. bibl.). \$4.50 net.

Georgia Hist. Soc. The Spanish official account of the attack on the colony of Georgia . . . and of its defeat by Gen. James Oglethorpe. Savannah, Ga.: Ga. Hist. Soc. 111 pp.

Glass, Lucy W. A comprehensive topical study of U. S. history and Pennsylvania history. Jeannette, Pa.: Jeannette Pub. Co. 162 pp. 40 cents.

Joseph, Samuel. Jewish immigration to the U. S. from 1881 to 1910. N. Y.: Longmans, Green. 209 pp. (3 pp. bibl.). \$1.50.

Judson, Katharine B., Compiler. Myths and legends of the Mississippi Valley. Chicago: McClurg. 215 pp. \$1.50 net.

Keiffer, Geo. L. Gettysburg, the battle and the battlefield. Gettysburg, Pa.: Gettysburg Compiler. 6 pp. 15 cents.

Pennypacker, Samuel W. Pennsylvania, the Keystone. Phila.: C. Sower Co. 316 pp. 75 cents.

Read, Benj. M. Popular elementary history of New Mexico. Santa Fe, N. M.: B. M. Read. 186 pp. \$1.00.

Ross, E. A. The old world in the new; the significance of past and present immigration. . . . N. Y.: Century Co. 327 pp. \$2.40 net.

Vliet, Mina A. W., Compiler. History of the early life of the village and township of Leslie, Ingham Co., Mich. Battle Creek, Mich.: Ellis Pub. Co. 120 pp. 50 cents.

Vocelle, James T. History of Camden Co., Georgia. Jacksonville, Fla.: Kennedy Brown-Hall Co. 156 pp. \$1.50.

Walker, Alice Johnstone. Little plays from American history [for children]. N. Y.: Holt. 155 pp. \$1.00 net.

White, Horace. The Lincoln and Douglas debates. Chicago: Univ. of Chic. 32 pp. 25 cents net.

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Elias, Edith L. In Georgian times. Boston: Little, Brown. 272 pp. \$1.25 net.

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